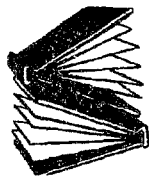


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Civics Education Manual

**for
In-Service and Pre-Service
Teachers**

**The Ministry of Education,
Curriculum Development Centre**



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Preface

This manual has been written on the basis of promoting ideals and values of democracy. It deals with civic educational experiences which promote national, regional and international understanding. It tackles contemporary issues such as human rights, social justice, interdependence, tolerance, peace and conflict and sustainable development. The concept of citizenship and the values of the Zambian constitution have widely been covered. This book has been written in simple language. I trust that it is reasonably comprehensive to enable the user to utilize it as a guide in the teaching of Civics. It also examines the teaching of positive attitudes and values as well as social study skills through which civic awareness can be realised in society. It is through effective teaching of Civics that democratic governance can be achieved.

Sichalwe M. Kasanda.
Permanent Secretary.
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION.

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Ms Chilumba Nahwamba, Senior Curriculum Specialist, Coordinator (Demographer), Curriculum Development Centre,Lusaka.

Mr Mukelabai Songiso, Senior Inspector of Schools(Civics), Ministry of Education, Lusaka.

Ms Lilian Ntalasha, Principal Curriculum Specialist, Consultant, Civic Education Association, Curriculum Development Centre.

Ms Winnie. N. Chilala, Programme Officer, Researcher and Demographer, Education Support Integrated Programme(ESIP), Lusaka.

Mr Hakasenke, Senior Inspector of Schools(Continuing Education), Ministry of Education, Lusaka.

Mr Geoffrey Simfukwe, Senior Lecturer(Civics), Nkrumah Teacher's Training College, Kabwe.

E.F Chingo,
Director,
CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT CENTRE,
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION.

Acronyms

MMD - Movement for Multi-Party Democracy.
UNIP - United National Independence Party.
NEC - National Executive Committee.
FODEP - Foundation for Democratic Process.
WLG - Womens' Lobby Group.
ZCEA - Zambia Civic Education Association.
NGO - Non- Governmental Organisation.
NGOCC - Non- Governmental Organisation Co-ordinating Committee.
SADC - Southern African Development Community.
COMESA - Common Market for Eastern and Southern African
Countries.
ECOWAS - Economic Organisation for West African States.
UAPTA - Unit of Account of Preferential Trade Area.
PLC - Public Limited Company.
ZPA - Zambia Privatisation Agency.
OAU - Organisation of African Unity.
WCED - World Commission on Environment and Development.
WID - Women in Development.
WAD - Women and Development.
GAD - Gender and Development.
VIS - Village Industry Service.
ZARD - Zambia Association for Research and Development.
NORAD - Norwegian Agency for Development.
SIDA - Swedish International Development Assistance.
ODA - Overseas Development Agency.
EEC - European Economic Community.
JICA- Japan International Development Agency.
IMF - International Monetary Fund.

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Introduction

This manual for pre-service and in-service trainee teachers has been produced as a result of the National Civics Symposium which took place at Mulungushi Conference Centre in Lusaka from 1st to 2nd November, 1995. The Symposium recommended that up to date information in Civics be provided to trainee teachers.

This manual provides the resource material to supplement the information covered in Civics at college level. This is an introductory manual which should form the basis for further study of the subject covered. The following topics have been covered in the manual; Introduction to Political Science; Introduction to Economics; International Relations and Organisations; Human Rights; Conflict and Conflict Resolutions; Population and Environment; and Gender and Development. It is hoped that after reading this manual student teachers will be able to fully discuss the issues covered and also teach the pupils.

In teaching these topics teachers are expected to use methods that will enhance achievement of Civics of Basic Education Syllabus. These methods have been outlined in the last section of the manual.

Introduction

Political Science is one of the major components of Civics. This is because one of the main aims of teaching Civics is to make the learner be aware of the nature, purposes and functions of political institutions. In every part of the world people are governed and they take part in the running of government in one way or another. Governments have leaders who make laws to ensure order, peace and harmony. The type of government and the manner in which it is run affects the welfare of the people. Some of the most important obligations of a (modern) citizen are therefore, to know how a government operates and to monitor the decisions and actions of the government so that it responds to the changing needs of the people.

Objectives

By the end of this unit you should be able to:-

- discuss the major political science concepts such as state, government, power, authority, democracy.
- distinguish a democracy from a dictatorship.
- describe the functions and the main structures of government.
- identify and discuss citizenship qualities that are compatible with democracy.
- discuss the roles of political parties, elections and pressure groups in promoting democracy.
- identify some study and social skills that promote citizen participation.

The scope of political science.

Political Science can be defined as the study of ideals, values, attitudes, institutions and processes that relate to the governance of a country. The study of political science is usually carried out at state level. A state can be defined as a group of people living in a definite territory, under a common government and is recognised by other states as possessing sovereignty. *Sovereignty* is the independence to make and carry out decisions without interference from other states.

The following are the characteristics of a state:-

- Population.
- Government.
- Territory.
- A monopoly of force held by the government.
- Sovereignty.

Government is usually associated with a state but the two are not the same. It is possible to have a government without a state. For example, a family, community or tribe can be said to have a government in that it has accepted rules of conduct, of maintaining law and order and of meting out punishments to offenders. A government can therefore exist independently.

Every state has a political system. The political system includes the individuals, who take part in public affairs, the structures and institutions through which these individuals act and the values that shape their behaviour. The political system comprises the government and political culture, values, beliefs and attitudes that determine political behaviour. The political process refers to the prescribed pattern of political activities such as law making and the electoral system. A state can have changes in its political system. From 1973 to 1991, Zambia had a One Party System

whose features were different from the Multi-Party System of the Third Republic.

Government

The most important institution in a political system is the government. It is the institution through which a nation is ruled. It consists of the formal institutions and offices involved in making decisions for a political system. It is the framework in which the Executive, Legislative, Judicial and Administrative functions are carried out. This framework is usually defined in a constitution.

In every society some form of organised government is found because of the need for an institution capable of exercising overall social control. The following are therefore recognised as the primary functions of a government in every society:-

1. Maintaining internal order and external security.

The basic function of government is to protect its citizens against internal and external enemies. The maintenance of law and order is usually achieved by using the:-

- a). police to arrest those who break the law.
- b). judiciary to pass judgement and determine punishment.
- c). army to deal with external threats and to control internal disturbances if the police fail.

2. Regulating the activities of Society.

The maintenance of law and order as well as the interactions and conflicts within the society require the government to make regulations governing the activities of all members of the society. In this way the population is made aware of what is acceptable behaviour in a place

of work, the use of public facilities, the organisation of economic, social or political enterprises, or interpersonal relations and transactions.

3. Promoting the general welfare.

One other important function of a government in a society is the distribution of goods and services to the people in the form of social amenities and welfare services. The government uses tax and other revenue policies to allocate resources to various sections of the society. It may subsidise education and health services, other beneficial social security systems, compensate the injured at a place of work and offer adequate facilities for old age and child care and the aged.

4. Promoting economic development.

The promotion of economic development involves the government in making decisions on how resources will be used for the production of goods and services. The government also decides whether to participate directly or indirectly in the production process. Direct participation usually means the establishment of public economic enterprises or acquiring shares in private enterprises. Indirectly, the government is involved in production by laying down the rules and regulations that guide the operations of private enterprise. By manipulating tax laws, prices and wages, the government can affect the type and quantity of goods produced and how, when and where they are produced.

5. Safeguarding Human Rights:

This is one of the functions that have increasingly become very important for modern governments. Governments are now judged by their citizens and other states on their human rights record. Democratic governments have come to accept the protection of individual freedoms

and rights as one of their primary functions. The constitution of Zambia has a Bill of Rights that protects the rights of Zambian citizens.

Political power and authority.

In order to perform the stated functions a government needs political power and authority. Political power is very important in the resolution of conflicts in society. The distribution of power within a political system determines how conflict will be resolved and how the resolution will be effectively observed by all the parties. *Power* is the ability to govern and maintain order within a society. This is achieved by the threat of some sanctions. These sanctions may be in the form of punishment or rewards. Opposition to the government may result in imprisonment or even death. It is the fear of these measures that makes citizens obey their government.

However, obedience secured solely by the fear of punishment is unstable. Political power is usually accompanied by authority. *Authority* is the established right to determine policies, to pronounce judgement on relevant issues, to settle disputes and to act as a leader or guide to people. In short it is the right to command and be obeyed.

There are three types of authority, namely:-

Traditional authority:- this is the right to rule which comes from the continuous exercise of power through inheritance e.g. chiefs.

Charismatic authority:- this results from the exceptional personal qualities of the political leader e.g. Hitler, Nkrumah and Mandela.

Legal-bureaucratic or Legal rational authority:- this authority comes from the constitution and the office that a person holds. For example, the Zambian Republican President is respected not because of his or her personality but because of his or her office. The authority comes from the acceptance of constitutional rules.

The problem of power in a state.

Political power is not distributed evenly in any political system. The rich possess more political resources than the poor. They can finance election campaigns, bribe supporters and opponents and purchase other political advantages such as good education. The rich may be individuals or business organisations. Some individuals may have advantages over other citizens because of their leadership qualities.

There is a general agreement that political decisions are made by a few people in all political systems. The common description of power as being vested in all citizens does not conform to political reality. However, this description is very important for the legitimacy of the government and the stability of a political system.

If power is (always) in the hands of a few, then the most important questions to ask about that political system are :-

- How are the leaders chosen?
- What controls are exercised over them by the citizens?
- How can the leaders be replaced?
- What are the mechanisms for replacement?
- To what extent is the leadership responsive to the demands of the citizens?

The answers to these questions are used to classify political systems into either dictatorships or democracies.

Dictatorships and democratic states

Governments are usually classified into two main categories: Democracy and Dictatorship.

Dictatorship: This is a government in which a single person or small group of people have unlimited power. Examples of dictatorships are: one party states, military regimes, chiefdoms and monarchies. A dictatorship can take the form of either an authoritarian or a totalitarian government. An *authoritarian* government is led by a dictator or a small group that forbids all opposition to its rule. Authoritarian government is based on brute force rather than on the consent of the governed. It arrests, tortures and kills political opponents.

A totalitarian government wants to control all aspects of a person's life. It is based on force and ideology such as Communism, Nazism or Socialism. Driven by its beliefs of creating a perfect society, the government does not hesitate to violate human rights in order to achieve its ideals. All religious, social, economic, cultural and political groups are subordinated to the government. The individual bows to the will of the government as determined by the single ruling party in all matters.

Totalitarian governments seek to control and regulate individuals mind, spirit and body. The media, schools and teachers are all carefully supervised. Public meetings are observed for any sign of opposition. Books that express views which the government does not like are banned and the authors are sent to prison .

In a dictatorship a government exists independently of the will of the citizens. Its right to rule does not depend on majority support of the people.

A democratic state

The word and concept of democracy comes from the Greeks. '*Demos*' means people and *Kratos* means rule - thus democracy means rule of the people. Democracies are governments that are based on a popular vote and elections which decide who will be in power.

However, elections are also held at regular intervals even in dictatorships. What distinguishes a dictatorship from a democracy are the following democratic principles:-

- The existence of several political parties representing different ideologies, thereby recognising a lawful opposition and guaranteeing its existence.
- Freedom of the press and information, which assumes that there is no government censorship. Backing is not required in order to launch new press organs and that there is no monopoly on the sources of funds available to the press that would give one individual or one financial group a dominant position in this field. This freedom also presupposes that the tax and criminal laws do not hamper the development of a press that is independent of the regime in power.
- The independence of the judiciary, which should not be subjected to any pressure by the executive and the members who should not fear for their careers or for their lives as a result of the judgements that they pass.
- The organisation of free elections at regular and reasonable intervals. There should be elections by secret ballot, the results of which are unknown prior to the counting of the votes. These elections should place not only different political parties but also individual candidates who are independent of the political parties in competition with one another. When such elections are held, both nationally and locally, the participation of the population in the decision making process, which is a basic feature of democracy is guaranteed. These conditions also ensure the legitimacy of the government. A legitimate government is one that is periodically elected by universal suffrage and by the majority of the population of the country.

- The alternation of power, which means that a government that has lost an election held in accordance with the rules must agree to resign and leave for the new majority, i.e the latter given an opportunity to govern.

These five principles must all be present for a state to be considered as having democratic foundations.

The power structure of a democratic state.

The power structure of a democratic state must be based on the principle of separation of powers. Modern governments generally tend to be organised in terms of the broad functions which all governments usually perform. These are the Executive, Legislature and Judicial functions. Therefore, these are the three component organs of the government: the Executive, Legislature and Judiciary. The executive organ of the government has the responsibility of implementing the decisions arrived at by the Legislature. The Judiciary has the task of interpreting the laws and ensuring that society obeys the laws. The Judiciary also settles disputes between the arms of government, Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs) and individual institutions.

The principle of separation of powers requires that the Legislature must not be a tool of the Executive. The Legislature must have the power to remove the Executive which in turn must have the power to dissolve Parliament. The Judiciary must be separate from the Legislature and the Executive. The judges must be given guarantees concerning their material circumstances and their careers in order for them to be fully independent when carrying out their duties.

There should also be separation between the state and political parties. There is a tendency for public services such as the state media, the police and the civil service to be used for the benefit of the party in power. Ministers who also discharge political duties on the party in power are

strongly tempted to use the state's resources to promote their political activities. These deny the other political parties access to the same resources.

Democratic Value.

A democratic state will decline rapidly if it is not sustained by democratic values. Values are beliefs that guide the behaviour of people. Democracy requires that participants in the political process share common standards of behaviour.

These are some of the values that sustain democracy:-

- respect for human rights.
- tolerance and respect for the beliefs and opinions of others.
- settling of disputes through persuasion, negotiation and compromise within the framework of the law.

Obligations of citizens

Democracy places certain obligations on citizens. These obligations are to:-

- vote wisely in local and national elections.
- become actively involved in the nation's political system by joining a political party, seeking political office and by encouraging others to do likewise.
- respect the symbols of national identity such as the flag.
- demonstrate willingness to finance government services through payment of taxes.
- help defend the country.

By fulfilling all or some of these obligations a citizen becomes an active participant in the country's decision making process. Citizens in a

democratic society have a responsibility to ensure that the system succeeds. The citizen therefore has a duty to combat the threats to democracy such as:-

- Corruption.
- Tribalism and nepotism.
- Gender inequality.
- Apathy.
- Suppression of human rights.
- Rigging of elections.
- Lack of respect for the rule of law.

The constitution.

This is the fundamental law that a society uses to organise its government, define and limit its power by describing its relationship with the citizens. A constitution is the foundation stone for democracy because it performs the following functions:-

- promoting the rule of law.
- limiting the power of the government.
- distributing power among the organs of government, that is the separation of powers.
- protecting the human rights of citizens.

A constitution can either be written or unwritten, flexible or rigid. A written constitution is in the form of a book. An unwritten constitution is based on conventions, traditions and customs of the society. A *flexible* constitution can be amended by a majority in the Legislature while a rigid constitution requires a referendum before an amendment can be effected.

The Zambian constitution

The structure of the Zambian government is outlined in the Republican constitution. The constitution has the following sections:-

- preamble.
- bill of rights.
- qualifications for Zambian citizenship.
- powers of the Executive, Legislature and Judiciary.

Political Parties

A political party is a voluntary association whose members share common beliefs and wish to form the government of the country. Political parties make democracy work by carrying out the following functions:-

- nominating candidates for elective positions in the national and local government elections.
- putting forward political, economic and social issues by deciding where the party stands on a particular question of public interest. This declaration of principles is called the party platform or manifesto.
- conducting election campaigns in order to gain public office, so that the party's manifesto can be implemented.
- acting as a watchdog over the party in power. Opposition parties must be alert to actions taken by the ruling party which may not be favourable to the interests of the people.

Party structure and organisation

A party needs a nation wide structure and organisation in order to win elections. The following are structures of party organisation in Zambia:-

- **the National Committee.** It organises the party at the national level. It is made up of senior members of the party such as the President,

Chairperson and Secretary-General. In parties like the Movement for Multiparty Democracy (MMD) and the National Party, the National Committee is called National Executive Committee while in United National Independence Party (UNIP) it is called the Central Committee.

- there are also provincial, district, constituency, section and branch committees to organise the parties at these levels.

Pressure Groups

A pressure group is a voluntary association of people who share certain aims and who wish to influence the decisions of the government. Pressure groups act as communication links between the government and the citizens who wish to influence the decisions of government leaders.

In order to achieve this objective, pressure groups use the following methods:-

- holding discussions with top political leaders and civil servants. This is called lobbying.
- carrying out press campaigns.
- holding demonstrations.
- staging strikes and boycotts.
- promoting civil disobedience e.g. blocking roads and rioting.

Pressure groups are also called interest groups or non-governmental organisations (NGOs).

Examples of pressure groups in Zambia are the:-

- Foundation for Democratic Process (FODEP).
- Women's Lobby Group.
- Trade Unions.
- Zambia Civic Education Association.
- Church.

Elections

Elections can be defined as the means by which people choose and exercise some control over their leaders. In Zambia electoral democracy is guaranteed by law. The constitution states that the President and Members of Parliament (MPs) must be elected every five years. In Zambia there are three types of elections. *General* elections are held every five years to elect the President and MPs. *Local* government elections are held every three years to elect councillors for local government. By-elections are held when an MP or a councillor for example dies, resigns or is imprisoned.

Elections play the following functions in a democracy:-

- enabling citizens to choose their leaders.
- legitimising the government in power.
- enabling citizens to exercise some control over government policies.

It is therefore very important that elections are free and fair.

Social and Study Skills

If young people are to possess the knowledge and develop the behaviour and beliefs required of citizens in a democracy, they must be helped to acquire a variety of skills for locating, gathering, interpreting and applying their Civics knowledge. Stated in another way, the purpose of teaching Civics is to enable the pupils to gain knowledge concerning their society and think critically about problems and issues and apply their knowledge in a constructive way.

The following are some of the skills needed for effective behaviour in society:-

Study Skills

- the ability to locate and gather information from a number of sources
e.g. books and newspapers.
- taking notes.
- listening reflectively to oral presentations.
- interviewing resource persons.
- observing and describing occurrences in the school and community.

Social Skills

- writing and presenting a speech.
- participating in a discussion involving social problems.
- playing different roles in a group such as being chairperson or secretary.
- using procedure of meetings effectively.
- suggesting and using methods of measuring group progress.

Introduction

For any country to develop its economy, it must be well organised. Economics is a key factor in national development. Economics is a vital subject for national development. It is therefore, important to seriously examine some of the economic issues affecting a country. This unit will discuss the following concepts:-

- Development.
- Economic development.
- Demand and supply.
- Financial institutions.
- Private and public enterprises.
- Trade.
- Budget.
- Economic groupings.

Objectives

By the end of this unit you should be able to:-

- discuss the subject matter of Economics and its relationship with other disciplines.
- explain the relationship between demand and price, supply and price.
- define development and underdevelopment.

- discuss factors of production, types of industries, economic policies and the role of agriculture in development.
- compare and contrast private with public enterprises.
- discuss the meaning, types and origin of money, inflation and deflation, and the role of financial institutions.
- discuss the meaning and types of foreign aid, its importance, the role of donor agencies, the effects of foreign aid to developing countries and the debt crisis.
- discuss the National Budget, taxation and donor support.
- define local and international trade, balance of trade, balance of payments, terms of trade and government policies on trade.

The subject matter of economics

Economics has been defined in different ways. However, all the definitions agree that it is concerned with the production, distribution and consumption of wealth.

Economics is about the satisfaction of peoples' wants. It is concerned with people and the social systems by which they organise their activities to satisfy their basic material needs such as food, shelter and clothing and also non- material wants such as education, leisure and spiritual fulfilment. It is peoples' wants rather than their needs which provide the motive for economic activity. The production of wealth is necessary because it enables individual's wants to be satisfied. It is the use of resources, or their allocation and organisation that constitutes the subject of Economics. Human existence has been preoccupied with the production and consumption of wealth, the desire for which seems to arise from peoples' basic impulse to increase on their welfare. The concepts of wealth and welfare, therefore form the basis of Economics. A nation's wealth consists of its stock of goods and services. Welfare on the other hand refers to the satisfaction that an individual or society derives from wealth.

The relationship with other disciplines

Economics is a social science. Unlike the physical sciences, in the social science of economics there are only tendencies which are subject to great variations in different countries and activities and at different times. However, economics has to be studied in a scientific manner. Problems are considered, analysed, simplified and perhaps subjected to mathematical treatment as they are solved. Mathematical figures are used for illustrations. Like Geography, Economics deals with various issues pertaining to human development. For example, it examines the effects of large population on the developing economies, allocation and development of industries, distribution of wealth and many others.

Development

Development embraces the major economic and social objectives that societies strive for. It is the process of improving the quality of life for all. These include:-

- the provision of basic needs, such as food, clothing, clean water, housing and health facilities.
- the increase of peoples freedom to choose by providing a variety of consumer goods and services.
- the utilisation of available resources effectively.
- the eradication of poverty.

Underdevelopment

An underdeveloped country is one which has good potential for using more capital or more labour or more available natural resources to support its present population but fails to do so. The following are indicators of underdevelopment:-

- low per capita income.
- poverty leading to malnutrition and high mortality.
- high unemployment.
- high levels of illiteracy.
- unsafe drinking water.
- inadequate industrial and social infrastructure.
- low quality of labour force.
- over population.
- low foreign currency earnings.
- mono- economy.

Indicators of Development.

The following are the indicators of development:-

- adequate family income for providing the basic necessities, such as food, shelter and clothing.
- availability of jobs to all family heads.
- increased productivity in the economy.
- high standard of living- including nutrition, housing, health and education.
- high national income or Gross National Product(GNP).
- national independence.

Economic Development

Economic development entails the increase in the amount of goods and services produced in a country. Demands for higher standards of living have put great pressures on governments to achieve faster rates of economic growth. Economists have identified several factors which determine the rate of growth.

Factors of production

Any activity which helps to satisfy material wants is called production. Enterprising individuals organise production by employing what are called factors of production(land, labour and capital).

- ***Land***

Land includes all kinds of natural resources such as agricultural areas, natural grasslands, woodlands, deserts, oceans, seas and lakes, rivers, the atmosphere and everything in them.

- ***Labour***

This is human effort, physical and mental, directed to the production of goods and services. It must be understood that it is the services of labour which are bought and sold and not labour itself.

Productive Forces

These are means of production such as factories, machines and people with production experience, labour skills and knowledge (science and technology).

Labour, productivity and work culture

Production is not only affected by the size of labour force and the number of hours worked, but also by the quality and effective utilisation of the working population. Improving the efficiency of labour is a matter of concern to all countries. It is the productivity of labour which is the critical factor. *Productivity* refers to the output per worker per unit of time. The unit of measurement is per man-hour. The following are the factors influencing labour productivity:-

- **Education and training.**

A well trained labour force with sound technical training is more effective than one which lacks training.

- **Working conditions.**

The efficiency of labour is very much influenced by the conditions under which it is carried out. Great attention should be paid to things such as ventilation, lighting, temperature and many others in places of employment.

- **Welfare services.**

Firms should provide welfare services for their employees such as playing fields, social and recreational facilities, medical facilities and transport. Such provisions contribute towards a happier, healthier and more efficient labour force.

- **The co-operating factors.**

The quality of the factors (land and capital) with labour is an important determinant of labour productivity. Organisation of workers and motivation are also important. The positioning of the working tools, the

layout of the machinery, the movement of materials are all important for improvements in productivity.

- **Motivation.**

This is a very important determinant of productivity. A high degree of joint satisfaction is necessary for improved productivity. The payment of bonus schemes where monetary reward is more closely related to effort, are widely used as means of stimulating productivity. Profit sharing schemes can also encourage workers to work hard. Also workers should be involved in decision making process. If workers pass decisions involving reaching certain targets in production, they will work harder.

Labour Market

This is where people who are ready to work sell their labour. There are those who are trained to do specific jobs, referred to as *skilled* workers and those who are not trained at all, known as *unskilled* workers. Another category of workers in the labour market is that of highly trained people with years of specialised training. These are called professionals. They require intensive training to master the skills of their professions. *Semi-skilled* workers receive training for a short time only e.g. drivers.

Labour Laws

There are a number of laws protecting both an employee and an employer. These laws are contained in the Industrial Relations Act of 1972 (refer to Civics Grade 9 Teacher's Book).

Labour Movement

A labour movement is an organisation of trade unions. Trade Unions are organisations formed by workers for the purpose of collectively bargaining with employers. Objectives of trade unions are to:-

- Improve members' working conditions in terms of working time, holidays, welfare facilities and negotiating for higher wages and salaries for members and so forth.
- Encourage members to take an active role in national development.
- Provide workers' education, especially on workers' rights.

If an agreement is not reached between a trade union and the employer, an *arbitrator* is called. He or she is an independent official who comes in to solve a dispute between the trade union officials and the employers.

In Zambia, the *Industrial Relations Court* makes a final decision on labour disputes. When workers go on strike without the support of their trade union, it is an illegal or an official or *wild cat strike*. A strike becomes legal when a union declares a dispute with the employer.

• *Capital*

Capital is any product of labour and land which is used to produce goods and services. It includes all equipment used in production e.g. factory, buildings, motor vehicles, roads, dams, money and so on. The capital used in the direct production of commodities may be subdivided into *fixed* and *working* capital. In the textile factory, the machinery installed in the factory forms the fixed or sunk capital. While the various inputs which are fed into the machinery in the process of production are the variable capital. Whether production is carried out or not, expenses must be incurred on fixed capital, while expenses on variable capital only occur

when production takes place. *Circulating capital* is the working capital which directly enters into the production of the commodity. For example, cotton is circulating capital when it directly goes into the manufacture of cotton cloth.

Capital accumulation or formation

This is important for the sustainability and development of the economy. The following factors affect its formation or accumulation:-

- Low incomes leaving little or nothing to save.
- Consumption habits; people eat expensive food, foreign drinks, buy expensive cars, radios, television sets and so on.
- The extended family system. By maintaining large families it is difficult to save any money.
- No future plans. People spend more to fulfil their present needs and end up being extravagant.
- Social status. This tends to depend on consumption in housing e.g. dress, cars, etc. This acts as a disincentive to capital accumulation.

Entrepreneurship

A person responsible for an enterprise in a business is called an *entrepreneur*. An entrepreneur is responsible not only for arranging how a piece of work shall be carried out but also for organising the work of others. He or she has to make important decisions, to determine what to produce, how much to produce and the production methods to be used.

Economic Policies

Economic policies are guidelines or an outline of measures government intends to take in order to achieve specific goals. Economic analysis is concerned with the means of achieving particular economic objectives. The choice of the objectives, how people want economic resources to be

used in order to satisfy their wants is a matter of political decision. The main aims of government's economic policy are:-

- a high and stable level of employment.
- price stability.
- a satisfactory balance of payments position.
- an acceptance rate of economic growth.
- an equitable distribution of income and wealth.

Demand and Supply

Demand is the amount of any commodity or service which a person or the community is prepared to buy at a given price. All goods are scarce as far as the demand for them is concerned. There is no sufficient amount for anything to allow everyone to have as much of it as she or he would like.

Supply is the quantity of a commodity or service that is offered for sale at any given price. You must clearly distinguish between "*demand*" and "*desire*" or "*need*" or "*want*". What people desire or need or want is of no direct concern to the economist. He or she is interested only in how much people are prepared to buy at a given price. Unlike demand, supply in economics always means supply at a price. It is meaningless to talk of large supply of something without quoting the price at which the commodity is being supplied.

The laws of Demand and Supply

Professor Sir Hubert Henderson stated three laws of demand and supply in his book entitled *Supply and Demand*. These are:-

Law 1: " When at the price ruling, demand exceeds supply, the price tends to rise. When supply exceeds demand, the price tends to fall."

Law 2: "A rise in price tends, sooner or later, to contract demand and to extend supply. Therefore, a fall in price tends to extend demand and reduce supply."

Law 3: "Price tends to level at which demand is equal to supply."

According to Professor Henderson, these three laws are the cornerstone of economic theory, because all economic analysis rests on them.

The relationship between price and demand

A change in the price of an item will result in a change in the demand for it. A rise in price will tend to lower demand. This is because:-

1. If price rises, fewer people can afford to buy the commodity, or they may not buy as much as they would like to, so that the demand will tend to fall.
2. If the item becomes cheaper, more people can afford to buy it, and these people who previously managed to buy a little of it, may buy more, so that the demand is likely to rise.

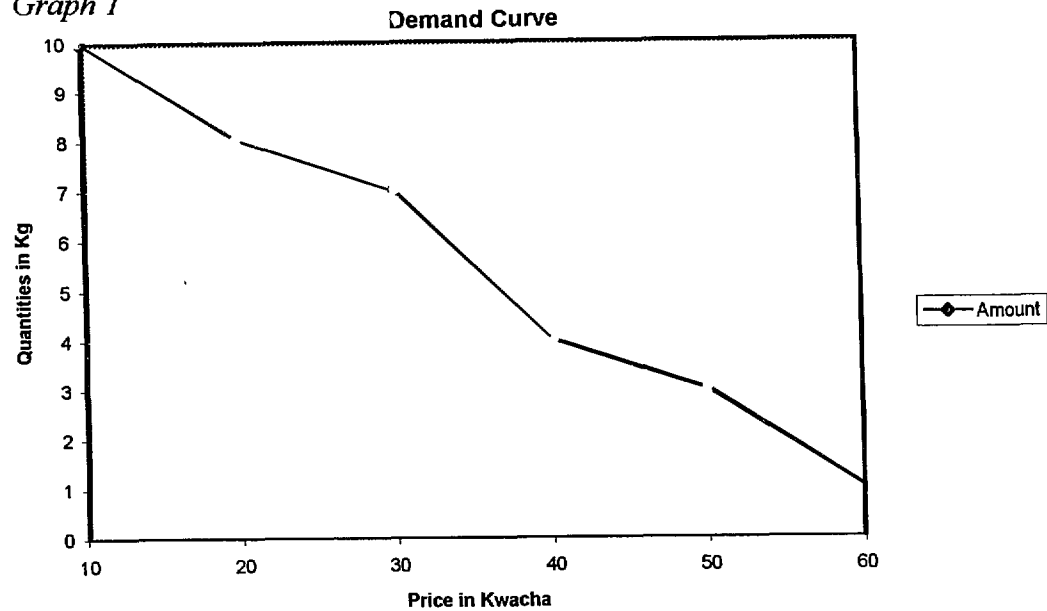
Demand schedules and demand curves.

A demand curve can be obtained by showing the effects of changes in the price of an item demanded, for example:-

| Price in Kwacha Per Kg | Amount demanded in Kg |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| K10 | 10Kg |
| K20 | 8Kg |
| K30 | 7Kg |
| K40 | 4Kg |
| K50 | 3Kg |
| K60 | 1Kg |

A demand curve can be obtained by plotting this schedule on a graph. The amounts demanded at various prices are joined by dots with a smooth curve as shown in the graph :-

Graph 1



In this diagram the line DD is the Demand Curve. It indicates the various quantities which will be demanded at different prices. At a price of K30, the amount demanded will be 7Kg. If the price were to rise to K50 the amount demanded would fall to 3 Kg. While if the price were to fall to K10, the demand would rise to 10Kg. Notice that these changes are in accordance with the relationship between price and demand as shown in the graph.

The relationship between price and supply

Effects of Price and Supply is the amount offered for sale at a fixed price. Different quantities will be supplied at different prices. Therefore, a change in the price of an article will bring about a change in the supply of it. This means, a:-

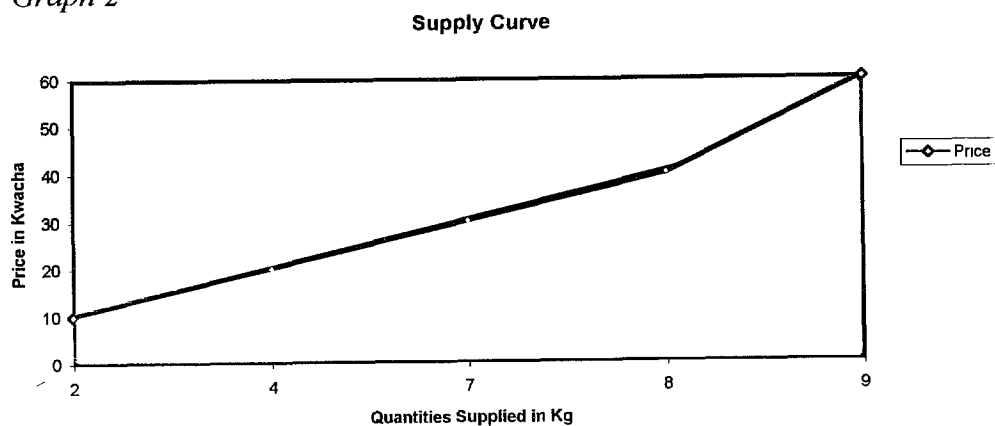
- rise in price will cause a rise in supply;
- fall in price will cause a fall in supply.

Supply schedules and supply curves:- You can show the relationship between price and supply by a table of prices and the different quantities supplied at each of these prices as follows:-

| Price in kwacha per Kg | Amount Supplied in Kg |
|------------------------|-----------------------|
| K10 | 2Kg |
| K20 | 4Kg |
| K30 | 7Kg |
| K40 | 8Kg |
| K60 | 9Kg |

If you plot the above schedule as a graph you obtain a *Supply Curve*:

Graph 2



The line **SS** in the diagram is the supply curve. It shows the various quantities which will be supplied at different prices. If the price is K20 the supply will be 4Kg; but if the price rises to K30 the amount supplied will rise to 7Kg. A rise in prices will cause a rise in supply.

The elasticity of demand

Elasticity of demand shows the degree of responsiveness of demand to a small change in price. If a small change in price causes a large change in demand then demand is said to be elastic. However, if a small change in price causes small change in the amount demanded, then demand is said to be inelastic.

Measurement of elasticity of demand

There are two methods of measurements:-

1. The total expenditure method

This method measures variations in total expenditure by the public on a commodity. This shows how the total expenditure on an item will be affected by changes in its price, and whether the demand for the item is elastic or inelastic. This is in relation to:

a). Falling Prices

If there is a small fall in price, and demand is extended a little, so that the total expenditure on the commodity is unchanged, the elasticity of demand is said to be *Unity*. For example, 24 items are sold at K10 per item. If the price is reduced to K8 per item and the demand goes up to 30 items, then the total expenditure on the commodity is unchanged at K240. The elasticity of demand is therefore *unity* or *equilibrium*.

- b). If there is a small fall in price, leads to extension of demand, so that the total expenditure on the commodity is greater than before, the demand is said to be elastic. In the example above the fall in price from K10 to K8 per item will cause the demand to rise to 40 items,

then the total expenditure will rise from K240 to K320, that is 40 items at K8 each. This means that demand is elastic.

- c). If there is a small fall in price leading to a very small extension of demand, so that the total expenditure on the commodity has now fallen, the demand is inelastic.

2. The percentage method

This method considers comparative changes in price and demand. By this method elasticity of demand is measured arithmetically as follows:-

Elasticity of Demand is Unity if:-

- i). **The Percentage rise in the demand** = 1

The percentage fall in price
or

- ii). **The Percentage fall in the demand** = 1

The percentage rise in price.

If the value of the fraction is greater than 1 the demand is elastic; if it is less than 1, the demand is inelastic.

For Example, if in the first case the percentage rise in demand had been 8 percent and the percentage fall in demand had been only 4 percent then the elasticity of demand would have been 8 divided by 4 = 2, this is greater than 1 (Unity). The demand would therefore have been elastic.

Factors which determine elasticity of demand

There are several factors which help to determine whether the demand for a commodity is elastic or inelastic. Here are some of them:-

- **The existence of substitutes:**

The demand for goods which have close and effective substitutes is likely to be very elastic, while if no adequate substitutes can be found the demand will be inelastic. For example, the demand for salt and sugar are extremely inelastic because there are no substitutes. The demand for one brand of beer is likely to be extremely elastic, since an increase in one brand of beer is likely to cause a large number of drinkers to buy another brand.

- **Proportion of total expenditure**

The proportion of a person's total expenditure which is spent on the commodity will affect elasticity of demand. Any item which requires a large proportion of an individual's total expenditure is likely to be elastic in demand. For example, an increase in the price of a dining table set from K80,000 to K200,000 will probably cause a very substantial fall in demand.

- **Luxuries or necessities:**

The demand for luxury goods is generally elastic, while the demand for necessities is usually inelastic. Necessities have to be purchased whatever happens to their price. Thus, the demand for salt is inelastic not only because it is a necessity, but also because it has no adequate substitute.

- **Personal Habits:**

Our personal habits often decide which commodities have elastic demand and which do not. Some people have turned goods which are really luxuries into necessities. For example, tobacco and alcohol are luxuries and may not be necessities to some, so the demand for these goods tends to be inelastic. Increases in the price usually have very little effect on the quantities of these goods.

The Importance of elasticity of demand

Elasticity of demand is not merely a theoretical concept, but it is also of great practical use. For example:-

- a). A shopkeeper who is not satisfied with the sales of his or her product may consider changing the price of the commodity in order to increase the profits. Before he or she changes the price, consideration of the elasticity of demand for the product, should be given. If the demand for the commodity is inelastic, then any rise in prices will be profitable.
- b). Elasticity of Demand is also of great importance to the government. If the Minister of Finance wants to raise extra revenue from taxes on goods, he or she will impose taxes on goods for which the demand is inelastic, such as tobacco, alcohol, sugar and petrol. Since the demand is inelastic, the public will continue to buy as much as before even when the price is increased by the amount of the tax. This will make the government get more revenue.

Financial Institutions

Financial institutions are very necessary in any given economy. There are organisations that deal with money. There are different types of financial institutions such as Commercial Banks, Credit Unions, Building Societies and Insurance Companies. Without financial institutions, most business activities would be at standstill.

Money

Money is a medium of exchange. It should be fairly durable, capable of being divided into reasonably small units and easy to carry about. It should also be relatively scarce, that is, using special metal like silver as money or special print paper which is difficult for counterfeiters to copy.

Functions of Money

- a) used as a means of exchange.
- b) acts as a measure of value. It expresses value of all other commodities.
- c) as a means of accumulation or saving. You save money in the bank for future use.
- d) as a means of payment for something or services done.
- e) as an international means of purchase, for example, the US dollar and the British pound. One single currency is used in relation to other currencies in international trade and at the world market. This is known as convertible currency.

Any currency which is legally accepted by a government becomes a legal tender. A legal tender is any means of payment that a debtor can legally compel his creditor to accept.

Types of Inflation

- i) *Creeping or chronic inflation*. This involves a steady but moderate annual rise in the general price level of goods and services at an annual rate between 1 and 6 percent.
- ii) *Hyper or galloping inflation*. This occurs when the price level of goods and services rise at a very rapid rate. Money loses function or its value as a medium of exchange. People are unwilling to receive it and prefer to barter their goods. When things have become very bad like this, the only possible course of action is to withdraw the currency and issue new monetary units. A good example is when Zaire's currency "Zaire" was pegged at 2.5 million to a 1 US\$ in 1993. Zaire withdrew the currency and replaced it with a new one.
- iii) *Suppressed Inflation*. This is a situation where demand exceeds supply, but the effect on prices is minimised by the use of measures such as price controls and rationing. However, price controls do not deal with the causes of inflation, they merely attempt to suppress the symptoms. The excess demand continues to exist and tends to show itself in the form of waiting lists and queues.

Causes of Inflation

Causes of inflation are usually classified as demand as a pull factor and cost as a push factor.

- i) *Pressure of demand*. When too much money is chasing too few goods and services, there is bound to be an increase in supply. This type of inflation is called *buyers' inflation* or demand inflation. It is a situation where aggregate demand persistently exceeds aggregate supply at current price so that prices are being pulled upwards. This type of inflation is mostly associated with conditions of full employment. A situation of excess demand may arise when a country is trying to achieve an export surplus, in order to pay off some external debts.

Exports are inflationary because they generate income at home but reduce home supplies of demand in the home market unless taxes and savings are increased.

ii) *When costs of production rise.* This is referred to as seller or cost - push inflation. It is due to:-

- Labour costs, workers demanding and receiving more pay than what they produce. The cost of materials, such as a sharp rise in the price of crude oil.
- Greater profits especially monopoly profits.
- Tax increases; higher indirect taxes and import duties.

iii) *Increase in money supply.* A rapid and large increase in the money supply will encourage an existing inflation and further stimulate total demand.

iv) *Expansion of the non-market sector of government services financed from taxation.* High taxation required to pay for the services tends to reduce the savings and profits.

The Effect of inflation

Inflation is undesirable because it produces serious economic and social problems, such as :-

i) *the effects on income.* People receiving fixed incomes are badly affected. Inflation reduces their real income because the value of their money is reduced. Wages, salaries, pensions and rents are affected. On the other hand, inflation favours business people, shareholders and others whose incomes are not fixed in money terms. Business profits are likely to rise during inflation.

ii) *the effects on production and employment.* Entrepreneurs invest more during an inflationary period. More investment means more jobs for

people. Thus, output and employment levels are likely to rise during inflation.

- iii) *the effects on the pattern of savings.* During inflation, money is not a good store of value. The real value of assets such as savings deposits and life insurance policies, begin to fall. People prefer to invest in property and art objects whose value rises during inflation.
- iv) *the effects on borrowers and lenders.* Borrowers gain at the expense of lenders, by the time a borrower repays his or her loan its value will have been reduced.
- v) *the effects on foreign trade.* By raising prices of home-produced goods relative to the prices of goods produced abroad, inflation encourages imports. Similarly, exports are discouraged. With imports rising and exports declining, a country is likely to end up with severe difficulties with the balance of payments.

Deflation

This is a continuous fall in the general price level of goods and services. It is a deliberate contraction of money supply in an attempt to reduce prices. Deflation is usually caused by a fall or reduction of total demand for goods and services. When this happens producers are forced to sell their goods at lower prices.

The effects of deflation

These are the opposite of those of inflation:-

- i) Groups with fixed incomes gain at the expense of groups whose incomes are not fixed. This is because when prices fall the real value (purchasing power) of their money increases. Business costs do not fall

as fast as the fall in prices, leading to lower profits or even losses; as a result, the incomes of businessmen and shareholders will fall.

- ii) As business profits decline, the levels of investment and employment go down thereby, reducing total production.
- iii) The real value of debts and savings is increased, lenders gain at the expense of borrowers since the purchasing power of rapid money is higher than that of the original money lent out.
- iv) By lowering the prices of home-produced goods relative to the prices of goods produced abroad, deflation tends to encourage exports and discourage imports.

Solutions to deflation

Government tries to increase total spending by lowering:-

- i) the bank rates, making it cheaper for business people and consumers to borrow money and hence increase demand. Purchasing power can be increased by reducing taxes.
- ii) government may increase its own expenditure to increase demand. It may increase the salaries and wages of public employees and encourage firms to do the same for their workers.

Reflation

This is a deliberate expansion of the money supply undertaken to stimulate an economy that is under employed.

The Roles of financial institutions

Banks

A bank is an institution that is prepared to accept deposits of money and repay cash on demand.

Functions of banks are to:-

- i) *accept cash deposits and safe guard them.* This is done on savings accounts, fixed deposits and current accounts.
- ii) *act as agents for payment.* A cheque is the principal method of payment in business. It provides a safe means for the transmission of money from one business to another or from one customer to another.
- iii) *issue bank notes.* Bank notes are issued in fixed denominations. On its face the banker promises to pay the bearer on demand the sum stated. A bank note is thus an acknowledgement. This is done in Zambia by the Bank of Zambia in conjunction with other commercial banks.
- iv) *lend some money to customers.* A bank can lend a customer cash as long as the customer promises to pay back with interest. This is possible especially for those with established businesses or big savings. This is done in the following ways:-
 - *By means of a loan account.* The borrower's current account will be credited by the amount of the loan. Thus, the borrower draws cash from his or her current account.
 - *By means of an overdraft.* The customer is permitted to draw cash more than the amount banked but pays interest on the amount overdrawn.

- *By acting as agents for their customers.* Banks transact foreign exchange business and obtain foreign currencies. They issue bank drafts, travellers cheques, provide night safe facilities, cash dispensers and so on.

Types of Banks in Zambia

There are different banks in Zambia; the main ones are:-

- *Commercial Banks.* These offer various services mentioned above. Some of these are: Barclays Bank, Zambia National Commercial Bank, Standard Chartered Bank, Indo -Zambia Bank, Finance Bank, Citi Bank, Capitol Bank and Union Bank. All these banks are controlled by a central bank, the Bank of Zambia.
- *Building Societies.* The main one is the Zambia National Building Society, whose main function is to provide loans to people who want to build houses. It also provides savings facilities like a commercial bank.
- *Zambia National Provident Fund(ZNPF).* This was established in 1965 to offer pension schemes and savings for employees not covered by government pension schemes. Part of an employee's wage is deducted and deposited into the Fund. The employer also contributes the same amount towards the employee's pension scheme. Benefits from ZNPF are given when an employee retires after the age of 45.

Other Financial Institutions are:-

- *Credit Unions.* These are co-operative banks providing loan facilities to their members.

- *Development Bank of Zambia*. This was formed to provide loan facilities to small entrepreneurs and also to established business houses.
- *Lima Bank*. It was formed to finance agriculture by providing loan facilities to farmers.
- *Zambia Co-operative Federation (ZCF)*. This offers banking and insurance facilities mostly to co-operative societies. It also provides loans to farmers in co-operative societies.

Budget

A budget is an estimate or plan of future income and expenditure. A family might draw up a budget in accordance with the expected income. Similarly, every government draws up a budget each year. In Zambia, for instance, the government presents an annual budget proposal to parliament. The purposes of a budget are to:

- carry out the development plans by providing money for public expenditure, cutting down on wastage and making the best use of the money available.
- supply community services.
- redistribute income and wealth by making services like health, education and many others affordable to the people.

There are three types of budget. These are:

- ***Personal Budget:*** This shows how an individual wants to spend his or her money and the source of his or her income.
- ***Family Budget:*** This is the expenditure of the family.
- ***The National Budget:*** This shows how a country proposes to spend the money on development, at any given period, especially per year, and how the government intends to collect revenue to finance projects and services.

The National Budget

The government through the Ministry of Finance gives a statement or a plan which forecasts its income and expenditure for the year. It is simply

an instrument for achieving economic control of the economy during the year. Powers to collect taxes have to be renewed annually as a protection to the common people. The main task of the Ministry of Finance is to assess the economic situation in the country. It may bring a budget which will have an accelerating, neutral or restraining effect in accordance with the Government's estimates of what is required.

A National Budget is made up of revenue and expenditure. It consists of the following parts:-

1. *Recurrent revenue*: This is money that government receives every year from different sources. The main source is taxation.
2. *Recurrent expenditure*: This is money spent by government every year. For example on salaries, maintenance, etc.
3. *Capital expenditure*: This is money spent on new projects such as road construction, building of schools and so on

A good budget is one which shows surplus or balance (income=expenditure, income>expenditure).

Budgeting for a deficit:

When the Ministry of Finance budgets for a deficit, it plans to spend more in the year than the amount expected to be collected from taxes. This is necessary when the economy needs stimulation so that the aggregate monetary demand can be raised. Some of the signs which require budgeting for a deficit are high unemployment, loss of confidence by the entrepreneurs on profitability of their businesses and the collapse of industries.

By budgeting for a deficit, such as reducing taxation, the Ministry of Finance leaves the average citizen with more money to spend. If the

citizens spend more money, the economy will be revived. Another way of doing this is for the government to increase welfare benefits to the needy people and to go ahead with capital projects. This will stimulate the economy and recovery will start.

Budgeting for a surplus

Inflationary pressure in the economy will make the Ministry of Finance take measures to arrest the situation. For example, it can raise taxes to reduce spending. This will leave the budget with a surplus. The reduction of money supply in the economy will reduce the demands for goods and services. This will prevent prices rising and ease the inflationary pressure in the economy. Whether the economic policy is successful or not depends on the reaction of the tax payers. The extra taxation may encourage wage demands that may fuel inflation. The people may give up extra work due to heavy tax burden. This will result in the drop of productivity. This is also inflation.

A neutral budget

The Ministry of Finance will bring in a neutral budget when the economy is believed to be right, with neither a stimulus nor restraint required. This means any tax charged will cancel out another. For example, an increase in the tax of fuel and a reduction in duty tax will make little difference. This will leave the demand for fuel unchanged.

Taxation

Tax is a sum of money paid to the government in accordance with the Taxation Act. Taxation is the act of taxing or money raised from taxes. Tax is paid according to income, property owned, goods bought, etc. Taxes are of two main types - *direct* and *indirect*.

Direct Tax is tax levied on an individual by the state. It is paid directly to the government. Examples of direct tax are poll tax, pay as you earn (P.A.Y.E), personal levy and customs duty. The most common direct tax in Zambia is income tax or P.A.Y.E. This provides the government with the biggest source of revenue. The higher the income, the more tax you will be required to pay. Personal levy is deducted from government employees twice in a year and is paid to the district councils.

Indirect tax is tax included on certain categories of goods. Tax is paid when you buy an item in a shop. In Zambia sales tax has been replaced by Value Added Tax (VAT). This is tax added to the value of an item. As the value of the item increases so does the tax. In 1995 VAT was fixed at 20 percent.

Taxation can further be classified as progressive, proportional or regressive.

- *Proportional taxes* are taxes charged to all tax payers on the same proportion of their income. For example, the government can tax every worker 20 percent of their pay irrespective of the amount they get.
- *Regressive taxes* are taxes which make the poor pay a greater proportion of their income than the rich. For example, poll tax in Zambia was fixed before independence in 1964. Both the rich and the poor had to pay the same tax.
- *Progressive taxes* make those who earn more money pay more tax. A greater percentage of their income is taxed.

The significance of taxation to a country.

- Taxation is required to cover government expenditure.
- Taxation discourages excessive consumption by reducing the supply of money to a single individual or groups of people. This is important where there is a shortage of goods to go round.

- Taxation to a certain extent discourages importation of luxury goods into a country.
- Taxation helps to reduce inequality of incomes in a country through progressive income tax.

The disadvantages of taxation

- If tax is very heavy, it discourages workers from working hard. Hence it acts as a serious check to production. Workers will not work overtime for fear of being heavily taxed.
- Tax can act as a deterrent to savings since it reduces people's ability to save. Workers are left with little money to spend and therefore, withdraw their whole salaries for expenditure.
- Tax also reduces the profit margin of enterprises. This leads to lack of expansion of industries or non- investment in new ventures. As a result, economic development is hindered.
- Taxation encourages inflation. Workers are forced to go on strike to ask for more money to increase their purchasing power.
- Tax discourages diversification of the economy. People tend to invest in areas where there is less tax. For example, when the Zambian Government removed import duty and sales tax from passenger transport in 1993, a lot of buses and mini-buses were brought into the country by business people. This improved transportation to some parts of the country.

Zambia Revenue Authority

This is a government agency which collects taxes from companies and individuals. It operates as an independent body without government interference. This has made the government collect a lot of taxes. The authority has introduced a number of measures to prevent tax evasions. Punitive measures have made businessmen and women comply with their tax obligations.

Donor support

The government cannot raise the required revenue to meet its budget. It therefore asks for donors to support funding of some projects, especially capital projects. Donors give grants and loans to Zambia. Refer to the section on Foreign Aid. International financial institutions also give loans to Zambia. However, the loans, unlike the grants, have to be paid back with interests. This creates a debt burden to Zambia.

Private and Public Enterprises

A public enterprise is owned by the state while a private enterprise is owned by an individual or a group of individuals. The main differences between them are those of ownership and motive. Businesses in a public sector are owned by the state and belong to the community as a whole. There is no clearly identified owner. It is mostly the consideration of public interest that determines the operation of a public enterprise and not profit or surplus. In a *private enterprise* the pursuit of profit or surplus is the determining factor in the operation of the enterprise. It has an obvious owner or group of owners. Decisions are taken by the owners of capital or their elected representatives within the firm, while in a public enterprise decision making procedure is highly centralised and in the hands of the political representatives of the people. The following are types of firms in the private sector:-

The sole trader

This is a single owner of a business enterprise. Control is vested in one person who enjoys all the fruits of success and hence has a great incentive to run the business efficiently. There is personal capital and labour, assisted perhaps by one or two employees. This type of enterprise is mostly confined to the retail trade. Personal supervision ensures effective operation at all times. There are no formal procedures to be followed.

Partnership

In this enterprise a sole trader takes a partner into the business, thus sharing responsibility and ownership. It is a very convenient method of getting more capital for the expansion of business. The number of partners is limited to 20. It is also a suitable method of acquiring expertise. People specialise in different aspects of the business such as taxation and transport. The tasks, responsibility and organisation of the

business are shared. The action of one partner is binding on others. Therefore, it is very important for partners to have absolute confidence in each other. A person who joins a partnership, supplies capital and shares the profits, but does not take part in the management, is known as a dormant or sleeping partner. This business organisation is common in professions such as law, accountancy, surveying and medicine.

The joint stock company

This consists of an association of people who contribute towards a joint stock of capital for the purpose of carrying out business with a view of making huge profits. There are two kinds of joint stock company, the *private* and *public* company. In most cases public companies are much larger units than private. A private company must include the word "Limited" in its name, while a public company must have the words "Public Limited Company" at the end of its name, abbreviated as *PLC*.

The distinctive feature of the joint stock company is that a large number of people provide the capital in varying amounts and receive shares in the profits. In this way it is possible to raise large sums provided the owners of the company are able to persuade the public about the prospects of the company.

Important features of the Joint Stock Company

- the company itself is completely liable for its debts, but the liability of the shareholders is limited to the amount they have agreed to subscribe to the capital of the company. After paying for the shares in full, the shareholders cannot be asked to meet any debts the company may incur. A business organisation which undertakes large-scale operations is called a Limited Company. The principle attraction of this business unit is that shareholder's liability is limited to the nominal value of the shares held. In this way many people can buy shares in an enterprise without risking their entire personal possessions.

- the prospect of continuity which the company offers. Its existence is independent of the lives and fortunes of its shareholders. If a shareholder dies, another person can inherit, or if he or she does not like the way the company is being run he or she can sell the shares. The company will not be affected.
- the transferability of shares. The company has the use of the capital subscribed by the original shareholders who may sell their shares at any time on the open market. The market value of shares may change from time to time.
- those who cannot or do not want to take an active part in management can contribute capital towards economic activity.

Public enterprises

In the public enterprises there are usually no private shareholders. The government owns the capital and appoints the members of the controlling board which has similar functions as directors, but they are answerable to the government and not to shareholders. In general, the policy to be followed by the enterprises is determined by the government. However, the controlling board is given wide freedom of action.

The main purpose of the public enterprises is to provide an efficient public service at a reasonable price. It does not aim to maximise its profits, but it is given the responsibility to operate economically.

Public Corporations are the most prominent form of public enterprises and there are of two types, namely those which sell a product directly to the public, for example, Zambia Electricity Supply Corporation (ZESCO), and those which do not, such as Zambia National Broadcasting Corporation (ZNBC). Each Corporation is a legal entity which can sue or be sued.

In contrasting the joint stock company and the public enterprises the following features should be noted:-

- **Control:** The joint stock company is controlled by a board of directors elected by the shareholders, while the public corporation is controlled by a board appointed by the government.
- **Ownership:** A joint stock company is owned by the shareholders whereas the public corporation is owned by the state.
- **Finance:** A joint stock company raises its own capital by the issue of shares to the general public, but the public corporation obtains most of the capital directly from the government.
- **Motives:** A joint stock company exists primarily for making profits, while the public corporation operates in the public interest and simply makes little profit to cover the costs.

Advantages of a public enterprise

- Provide necessary social facilities like education, sanitation and health. Being unprofitable ventures they are not likely to be provided by private enterprise cheaply.
- Provide services which are a natural monopoly like railways, electricity and water supply.
- Capital can be provided by taxation as well as by borrowing with government guarantees about interest and repayments. This is useful where profits are unlikely for sometime, such as the ZCCM.
- The provision of services without a major emphasis on profit making renders the goods or services cheaper than in private sector. This amounts to a social subsidy.
- There are large scale operations e.g. electricity supply by ZESCO.

Disadvantages of public enterprise

- Prices charged for goods and services are not economical. Therefore, large losses are incurred.
- Politicians may interfere with the operations of the enterprise. This will result in loss making or total collapse.
- Waste is sometimes not discouraged, since losses are borne by the taxpayers or ratepayers.
- The government is likely to discourage private investment by protecting state enterprises. This may lead to shortage of goods in the country due to lack of variety. Therefore, there is no freedom of choice.
- Goods produced are of low quality due to lack of competition.

Nationalisation

Nationalisation is the taking over of private companies by the government. This is done through a complete take over after compensation is paid to the owners of the company or through buying over 50 percent of the shares in the private company.

Nationalisation allows the interests of the community to prevail. The government may try to influence the general economic activity by way of nationalisation. For example, it may want to create more jobs by encouraging expansion of industries.

A private industry producing a major source of government revenue may be nationalised. For example, the Zambia Consolidated Copper Mines(ZCCM) which was nationalized in 1968 is the major foreign exchange earner for Zambia. The arguments for nationalisation are that:-

- Basic industries should be operated in the national interest and not with a view to private profit.

- Only public ownership can ensure that a powerful monopoly position will not be used to exploit consumers.
- Only the state can provide a very large injection of capital which is needed to restructure and modernize capital - intensive industries.
- A large sector of the economy directly under government control can be used as a powerful tool to control the economy. This will stimulate an increase in income and employment.

Nationalised industries, charged with operating in the public or national interest, will be under strong political and social pressures to give much more attention to public service than private ones. They may be forced to operate some loss making activities. For example, the liquidated United Bus Company of Zambia (UBZ) provided transport services to rural areas where roads are very bad. Buses broke down and a lot of money was spent to repair them. Heavy losses were incurred in running the company. The government provided subsidies for such non- profitable operations.

Privatisation

This is the process of selling state owned businesses to the private sector. This includes the selling off of government owned shares in state enterprises.

Arguments for Privatisation are that:-

- It raises revenue for the government. The revenue makes it possible for the government to reduce its borrowing and to make tax cuts without reducing its own spending.
- It increases competition and efficiency. Competition motivates private companies to improve their products and services. Inefficiency leads to bankruptcy.

- Managers of private enterprises are free from political control and interference. They are able to charge economic prices in order to make profits and to make investments they think will generate good income.
- It broadens share ownership. The idea is to shift ownership away from the state and large businesses towards individuals. For example, Zambians have been given an opportunity to buy shares in privatised companies like Chilanga Cement and Zambia Sugar Company.

Zambia Privatisation Agency (ZPA)

Is given the task of selling government owned companies to private individuals. The companies on sale are advertised in newspapers. Individuals are free to bid for the companies. The highest bidder is asked to buy the company. However, ZPA is free to determine the price of any company. By April 1996, over 20 state owned companies had been privatised. This included, Zambia Breweries, Chilanga Cement, Eagle Travel, Auto Care, Mpongwe Development Company and National Milling Company.

Trade

Trade is important to any society. Without it there can be no meaningful development. Trade is the selling and buying of goods and services. There are two types of trade:-

- Local or domestic.
- External or International.

Chain of distribution: The movement of goods from the producer to the consumer is called the chain of distribution. The production of goods and services requires well organised methods of distribution. Goods for sale move from the manufacturer to the wholesaler and then to the retailer and finally to the consumer.

The Retail Trade

A retailer is a business person who sells things in small quantities. He or she acts as an agent for the manufacturer and the wholesaler who provide goods. The consumer buys goods from the retailer.

Functions of the retailer

The retailer performs the following functions:-

- *providing local supplies.* By establishing their shops in town and villages throughout the country, retailers provide consumers with goods.
- *the breaking of bulk.* While manufacturers and wholesalers deal in very large quantities, retailers provide goods in small units.

- *providing a variety of goods.* A manufacturer may make only one particular brand. A retailer sells goods from a number of manufacturers, and this provides a variety of goods for consumers to choose from.
- *advice and information.* A retailer may be able to give information to the manufacturers' representatives who call on him or her, on the requirements of certain products. This may affect future production.
- *providing other services.* A retailer may provide a delivery service in respect of some durable goods such as television sets, cars, etc. It may not be possible for the customer to collect these from the shop. Some retailers close their shops very late to allow their customers enough time to do their shopping.

Types of Retailers

Street markets. This includes stalls in markets. They are mostly owned by small retailers who have complete control of their businesses.

Multiple shops. These are large scale retailers specialising in a range of goods or a large variety of goods.

Departmental stores. These are mainly found in big towns and cities. There are separate departments dealing with specific goods, for example, furniture, electrical goods, clothing and so on. All departments operate under one roof.

Supermarkets. These are generally known as self-service shops. They mostly concentrate on food and household goods.

Hypermarkets. These are very huge supermarkets which sell a much wider range of products especially consumer durable goods. They require a large area for buildings and car parks.

Retail-cooperatives. These are retail shops organised by a group of people as shareholders. Services are offered to members and non- members.

The wholesale trade

The chain of distribution for any given commodity depends on a number of factors:-

- the nature of product. For example, perishable goods have to be treated with care.
- the conditions of production. Some goods are highly demanded, while others are not.

There are six different types of wholesalers:-

- *General wholesalers.* These may operate on a national or regional basis. They stock a wide range of goods in their warehouses.
- *Specialist wholesalers.* These restrict their activities to a particular trade and mostly to a particular area.
- *Cash and carry wholesalers.* These do not allow credit purchases. They usually concentrate on local markets. Sometimes they sell goods directly to consumers.
- *Brokers.* These are agents who work on behalf of customers. Their job is to find buyers for the goods. The buyers and sellers make their own arrangements for delivery of their goods. They receive a commission for their services.
- *Factors.* These are a special kind of agent. They do not merely bring buyers and sellers into contact with each other, but also have goods in their possession. They are usually found in the export trade.

The Functions of the wholesaler:

The main function of a wholesaler is to facilitate the flow of goods from the producer to the consumer. In order to achieve this, they provide the following services:-

- *Warehousing.* They buy goods in bulk and store them in warehouses until they are required by retailers.
- *Marketing.* By visiting the wholesaler's warehouse or showroom, the retailer gives the wholesaler the opportunity of promoting the sale of goods by means of effective displays.
- *A Reservoir.* A wholesaler serves as a source of supply to retailers. He or she offers them a wide selection of goods from a number of different manufacturing companies. Retailers do not have to visit each individual manufacturer to choose their goods.
- *Breaking bulk.* A wholesaler buys goods in huge quantities and divides them into smaller quantities for the retailer.
- *Price stability.* By carrying large stock of goods, a wholesaler is able to control the price fluctuations that would otherwise occur. By buying the produce at harvest time and releasing it gradually over the year, the wholesaler can eliminate the wilder price fluctuations.
- *Risk bearing.* By holding a large stock of goods or materials, the wholesaler also removes a number of risks from the shoulders of producers and retailers.
- *Delivery.* A wholesaler may deliver goods to a retailer, thereby saving him or her from transport expenses.

- *Information.* A wholesaler is a useful source of information to producers and retailers. For example, he or she can tell retailers about new products. He/she may also let the manufacturers know which of their goods are selling well and which are less demanded by the public.

In short, without these services, the distribution of goods by the wholesaler would be less efficient.

Markets

In general terms a market is a place where people come together to buy and sell goods and services. Shopping centres are markets.

A Competitive Market is one in which there are a large number of buyers and a large number of sellers. Prices of commodities vary from one person to the other. There are no obstacles preventing would be consumers from reaching all suppliers. Such a market is perfect. If there are obstacles in the market, for example, no transport, no variety of goods, etc. it is called an imperfect market.

Types of markets

- *The Perfect Market.* In this market all potential buyers should have perfect knowledge of the prices asked for by all potential sellers, and that all sellers should seek to maximise prices for their produce, while all buyers should try to pay minimum prices in order to obtain the best value for their money. All persons should also be dealing in readily identifiable products.
- *Commodity Market.* These are places where variety of commodities are sold. The methods of trading may be by:-
 - i) *Auction Sales.* Buyers decide how much they are prepared to pay for every commodity. The highest bidder wins.

- ii) *Ring Trading*. Dealers sit in a ring announcing their bids for consignments, especially metals.
- iii) *Private Treaties*. These characterise the Stock Exchange, the Foreign Exchange, etc. In a Stock Exchange, a broker will approach a number of wholesalers on behalf of his or her client before concluding a deal on the most favourable terms available.

Markets are vital to the whole process of production. This is because they:

- i) reduce price fluctuations due to the seasonal nature of the product. market specialists carry stocks of goods in order to prevent prices falling too rapidly in periods of high output, or rising too rapidly in periods of low output.
- ii) bring together buyers and sellers usually to the same place.
- iii) allow both producers and consumers to take advantage of the specialised services.

International Trade

Nations trade with one another for several reasons:-

- the production of different kinds of goods requires different kinds of resources used in different proportions.
- various types of economic resources are unevenly distributed throughout the world. Climate plays a larger part in the production of many natural products.
- a nation with vast demands may supplement home production with imports. International division of labour makes it necessary for an

- a nation with vast demands may supplement home production with imports. International division of labour makes it necessary for an increase in the exchange of commodities between countries. The greater the amount of specialisation, the greater, therefore, the output of all kinds of goods by the world as a whole.
- a country can produce one commodity more cheaply than the other. This encourages trade between the two countries because it has a greater comparative advantage in the production of that commodity.

In short, international trade greatly increases the variety of goods available to each country. It encourages economic growth.

Balance of Trade

This is a situation where the value of a country's exports and the value of the imports of visible items are equal. Visible items are items which can actually be seen. For example, raw materials, food and manufactured goods are kinds of visible trade. If a country's exports exceed imports, it has a favourable balance of trade or trade surplus, but if imports exceed exports, it has unfavourable balance of trade or trade deficit.

Balance of payments

A country's balance of payments is a record of all its financial and economic transactions with the rest of the world. International trade gives rise to indebtedness between countries. The balance of payments shows the relationship between a country's payments with the other countries and its receipts from them, and is thus a statement of income and expenditure on international accounts.

Payments and receipts on international accounts fall into three groups:-

- i) the visible balance of trade.

- ii) invisible items.
- iii) capital movements.

Items in the balance of payments which relate to goods are known as visible items, and the relation between imports and exports is known as balance of trade.

In general terms, a country's balance of payments can be described under two main headings; the *current account* and the *capital account*.

The Current Account

This account includes both visible and invisible items. The '*visible*' imports and exports consist of physical merchandise of all kinds, whereas the '*invisible*' imports and exports are mainly services and come under the following major headings:-

- i) net income from services rendered by residents to non-residents, this includes tourism, transport and various financial services like insurance and banking.
- ii) the balance of gifts and transfer of migrant's funds.
- iii) net grants by the government to other countries.
- iv) interest, profits and dividends.

All inflows of money, which result from visible and invisible imports are recorded as debt items in the accounts. It follows that an excess of imports over exports will give rise to a current account deficit and an excess to a current account surplus.

This account includes both long term and short term capital movements between the home country and all other countries. The long term capital movements include direct investments (which involve the actual setting up and controlling of an enterprise in a foreign country), portfolio investments (which involve the purchasing of the securities of a foreign company or government) and inter-governmental loans. The short-term private lending and short- term investments.

We can, therefore, define a deficit and surplus on the balance of payments as follows;-

- a deficit exists when the value of autonomous debt items exceeds the value of autonomous credit items.
- a surplus exists when the value of autonomous credit items exceeds the value of autonomous debt items.

Terms of Trade

Terms of trade mean the rate at which one country's products are exchanged for those of another. It depends on the prices of commodities entering into international trade. The terms of trade are said to be favourable to a country when the prices of its exports are relatively higher than the prices of its imports. If the prices of its imports are higher than those of its exports, then the terms of trade are unfavourable.

Zambia's balance of payments have been very unfavourable since the 1980s. Exports continued to decline mainly because of the decline in copper exports. Merchandise exports declined by 53 percent from US\$1,457 million in 1980 to US\$681 million in 1986. Imports of goods and non-factor services declined by 9.7 percent. The drastic cut in imports aggravated the already very difficult economic situation. Despite the shortfall in goods, the trade balance improved from a deficit of US\$ 20 million in 1986.

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The following table shows Zambia's balance of payments from 1990 - 1993:-

Balance of Payment Between Zambia and Selected Countries

Trade in Million kwacha

| | United Kingdom | | South Africa | | U.S.A | | Japan | | Germany | |
|------|----------------|-------|--------------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|---------|-------|
| Year | Exp | Imp | Exp | Imp | Exp | Imp | Exp | Imp | Exp | Imp |
| 1990 | 336 | 5974 | 56 | 6229 | 270 | 3743 | 5101 | 2464 | 108 | 4294 |
| 1991 | 3209 | 9659 | 306 | 10673 | 150 | 3658 | 13162 | 4908 | 95 | 2144 |
| 1992 | 3392 | 16950 | 880 | 38603 | 811 | 12406 | 26200 | 6472 | 641 | 5362 |
| 1993 | 4882 | 34054 | 5786 | 137364 | 1264 | 8839 | 47632 | 13526 | 581 | 14910 |

Source : Central Statistical Office, 1995 Economic Report.

Foreign Aid

There are two sources of Foreign Aid:-

1. *Multilateral aid*. This is aid from international agencies to a country. For example, International Monetary Fund (IMF) and Zambia, World Bank and Zambia.
2. *Bilateral aid*. This is aid from one nation to another. For example, aid from the United Kingdom to Zambia.

Aid is either *bilateral* or *multilateral* and comes in different forms, for example, in capital goods or in the form of expertise or finance.

Critics of foreign aid argue that international assistance may help to support governments which are pursuing policies which are obstructing development, and that by increasing the power of government, aid breeds corruption, inefficiency and tensions in society which retard development. They further argue that aid may encourage irresponsible financial policies and if the assistance is free, there may be no incentive to use resources productively. However, the most recent study has shown that the provision of aid has played a major part in the direct provision of basic needs and the relief of poverty in many developing countries. The need for foreign aid as loans and grants is that:-

- it supplements the national income and domestic resources to meet target levels of savings, investment and foreign exchange.
- it stimulates and facilitates the process of development.
- it helps in paying for imports.

These are either bilateral or multilateral. Examples of donor agencies are International Monetary Fund (IMF), (JICA), (ODA), (SIDA), (NORAD). They provide funding to various capital projects in Zambia.

Policies of Donors

Many developing countries that are recipients of aid prefer that it came from and through multilateral rather than bilateral channels. Multilaterally provided aid is considered to be comparatively neutral in its effect upon domestic politics, and to have relatively fewer strings or conditions of use than bilateral aid. The donor countries continue to prefer programmes of direct aid. They often wish to influence the political and economic policies of the recipient countries at least indirectly. They desire that credits be supplied against purchases of advantage to them, and they are likely to allocate funds to countries where there is a special interest. Practically, all aid is tied, but this does not make such aid undesirable, even though untied aid would theoretically be preferred by the recipient country. Bilateral loans or credit, usually carry a lot of strings. These strings can be broken up into two main dimensions:-

- i) *Ideological aspect.* A given country wants to make sure that it shares the objectives with what the other countries are going to achieve.
- ii) *The Commercial aspect.* This is the potential aspect for a receiving country to repay the loan. The donors ensure that money is invested in viable projects which are likely to benefit the majority. This is most likely where a country is perceived to run into financial problems. At the

same time, there is a fear that the money will be misused if it is pumped into those projects.

The effects of foreign aid on third world economies

The Third World Economies are those where the real income per head and the general standard of living are much lower than in the developed countries.

In some cases aid is given to areas which are non-productive. Capital for investment in form of loans, is money that must be paid back. The term of payment may affect the volume of foreign exchange which may be needed for future capital investment. This is mostly due to high interest rates to be paid by the recipient country. The larger the loan, the larger the debt service burden.

The disadvantage with loans is that the investor may wish to use a capital intensive technology which is not suitable to local conditions. This will in the long run drain the country's foreign exchange by importing expensive spare parts or technical assistants.

Food aid may kill the agriculture sector by encouraging laziness or cheap food. Technical Assistance can be given but if not well checked can encourage brain-drain from the recipient country to other countries. Since expatriates are given better conditions of service than locally employed staff.

In short, technical assistance which is effectively and related to a country's development programme has a desirable impact, whereas technical assistance which is not so related to the country's programmes has a distracting effect and can even impede development.

Debt Crisis

Third World countries' over dependence on aid has resulted in more dependence on International Aid. Hence facing a problem of debt servicing for a long time. Between 1970 and 1974, the debt in Third World countries stood at 606 billion US dollars. The increase of debt was a result of debt servicing and not the actual money that the countries borrowed.

- The floatation of interest rates. The interest rate changes according to the international rates.
- The shortening of the maturation period. In the period 1970 - 1985, the period in which the interests were going to mature was shortened from 10 to 3 years. That led to the accumulation of debts.
- The tendency of Third World countries borrowing to finance consumer products. Hence the failure to repay the money due to lack of productive infrastructure.
- Most of the commodities exported from Third World countries to developed countries are undervalued. As a result, they are unable to repay the loans. Since they could not repay the debts, the loans were rescheduled with higher interest rates. Hence, the debt crisis came in as a result of accumulation of debts.

Economic Groupings

This is when countries come together to trade among themselves. Since the second world war, there have been many examples of groups of countries joining together for the purpose of stimulating trade among themselves and obtaining other economic cooperation. Economic integration among countries can take several forms such as:-

- *A Free trade area.* This consists of a group of countries who have removed tariffs and quotas on trade among themselves. However, each member country maintains its own independent restrictions on imports from non-member countries.
- *Customs union.* This is a form of economic integration. There is free trade among member countries, but all members are required to operate a common external tariff on imports from non-member countries.
- *Common market.* This is an economic grouping which conducts free trade in goods and services. It also allows free movement of factors of production (labour and capital) between the member states.
- *Economic Union.* This requires member states to adopt common economic policies on matters such as agriculture, transport and taxation.

Some of the regional economic groups include the following:-

1. The Southern African Development Community (SADC).

The previous name of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) was the Southern African Co-ordination Conference (SADCC).

It was formed on 1st April 1980 in Lusaka, Zambia. The main aim was to try to reduce economic dependence on South Africa so as to enforce UN economic sanctions against South Africa. This was at the height of the liberation struggle in Southern Africa. The name SADCC became SADC in August, 1992.

In 1996 it had 11 member states. These were Zambia, Angola, Botswana, Mozambique, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Namibia, Lesotho, Malawi and South Africa. South Africa was admitted as a member in 1994 after the first democratic elections in South Africa. The secretariat of SADC is in Gaborone, Botswana.

The following are the objectives of SADC:-

- Achieve development and economic growth to reduce poverty, improve the standard and quality of life of the people through regional cooperation.
- Encourage common political values, systems and institutions.
- Promote and defend peace and security.
- Promote the proper use of resources of the region and achieve protection of the environment.
- Strengthen and consolidate the long standing historical, social and cultural values and links among the peoples of the region.

Overview of SADC

Trade has been increasing among SADC countries. However, trade has been in favour of the most industrialised countries like South Africa and Zimbabwe. Other countries have continued to be dumping grounds of finished products. SADC has assisted in the development of many sectors

in the region especially in the field of agriculture. Tariffs have been reduced but not very much. The problem SADC faces is lack of foreign exchange in member countries to support viable projects. SADC has continued to rely heavily on donor funding in its projects. As a regional economic grouping, it has succeeded in increasing trade among member states, but much still needs to be done.

2. Common Market for East and Southern Africa (COMESA)

This was previously known as the Preferential Trade Area (PTA). The members are Angola, Zambia, Kenya, Malawi, Zimbabwe, Burundi, Ethiopia, Lesotho, Tanzania, Zaire, Uganda, Sudan, Namibia, Eritrea, Comoros, Mauritius, Madagascar, Swaziland, Namibia and Rwanda.

Objectives

- Achieve sustainable growth and development of the member states by promoting a more balanced and cooperative development of production and marketing structures.
- Promote joint development in all fields of economic activity so as to raise the general standard of living of its peoples, and raise closer relations among its members.
- Cooperate in creating an attractive environment for investment including the joint promotion of research and adaptation of science and technology for development.
- Cooperate in the promotion of peace, security and stability among the member states in order to enhance economic development in the region.
- Contribute towards the establishment, progress and realisation of the objectives of the African Economic Community, signed in Abuja, Nigeria on 3rd June 1991.

All the member states who have signed the treaty, agree to the formation of:-

1. A free trade area to allow free movement of goods and services amongst COMESA states by removing tariff and non-tariff restrictions.
2. A customs union in which goods and services bought from countries which are not members of COMESA are charged a single tariff by all COMESA members.
3. A gradual establishment of a payment union through the COMESA clearing house and eventually establish a common monetary union with a common currency.
4. The adoption of a common visa arrangement so as to remove visa requirements within COMESA for all citizens.

COMESA has achieved a number of successes. Trade among member states has increased. Unit of Account of Preferential Trade Area (UAPTA) was introduced to enable member states trade without obstacles of foreign exchange constraint. Under this arrangement, member states use their own local currencies to purchase goods from other members. PTA clearing house now COMESA clearing house was established to facilitate trade relations among member states.

3. Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS)

This is an economic organisation of countries in West Africa. It was formed in 1978. Its headquarters are in Lagos, Nigeria. It has 16 member states.

Major objective of ECOWAS

1. Free movement of goods and people throughout the community area to promote trade among member states.
2. To establish a free trade zone.

3. To eliminate all barriers to goods exported from member countries by introducing a common customs tariff.

Successes

1. For the ordinary man the community has brought the benefits of a wider choice of products and services and new opportunities to work in any of the member states.
2. A fund for cooperation, compensation and development has been set up to finance member states.
3. There is considerable trade or barter arrangements in commodities among countries in ECOWAS.

Problems

- Many leaders in ECOWAS have not shown serious concern for poverty for the masses of their population.
- Products produced in member states no longer attract good prices overseas. This has led to serious economic difficulties due to lack of foreign exchange.
- Due to the diversity of languages and culture in ECOWAS, European buyers have shown some form of discrimination. For example, French buyers buy from French speaking countries. Portuguese buyers buy from Portuguese speaking countries and so on.
- There is unbearable taxation borne by the poor and evaded by the rich in member states.
- There are monopolistic activities of marketing boards.
- There are misguided agricultural policies.
- Poor communication links.
- Proliferation of currencies and a foreign exchange restrictions and control.
- Economic nationalism and acute economic difficulties by member states.

- Political instability, constant military coups in some countries have disrupted regional cooperation.

4. European Economic Community (EEC)

This is a Customs Union which aims not only at the elimination of all internal barriers to trade but also at the establishment of a common external tariff so that the exports of non-members receive the same treatment wherever they enter the customs union or common market. There are common economic policies in a number of fields. Some of them are:-

- The elimination of customs duties and quotas on the import and export of goods between member states.
- The establishment of a common customs tariff and a common commercial policy towards non-member countries.
- The abolition of obstacles to the free movement of persons, services and capital between member states.
- The establishment of common policies for agriculture and transport.
- The prohibition of business practices which restrict or distort competition within the common market in ways which are considered to be harmful.
- The association of overseas countries to increase trade and development.

The other community institutions are:-

1. The Economic and Social Committee: The members of this committee represent trade unions, employers associations, and the general interest of people. It is an advisory body of the council of ministers and commission. It is contacted before any action is taken on major economic or social matters.

2. *The European Investment Bank*: The main source of funds is the capital subscribed by member countries. Its aim is to provide loans for projects such as those which stimulate development in the less prosperous regions, develop resources for energy, protect the environment, expand the use of new technology and improve communications.
3. *The European Regional Development Fund*: The main aim of the fund is to redistribute community resources to the poor regions. Aid from the fund is in the form of non-repayable grants. Much of the money goes to infrastructure, roads, water schemes, bridges, telecommunications, ports, etc. The policy of the fund is to provide additional aid for projects mounted by national governments.
4. *The European Social Fund*: This fund is meant to provide assistance in form of grants. The main purpose is to improve employment opportunities for workers and to increase their occupational movement. It helps to fund training, resettlement and job-creation schemes.
5. *The European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund* : This fund accounts for more than two-thirds of the community's expenditure. It consists of two parts.
 - a) *The Guidance Section*. This is concerned with the improvement of the organisation and structure of agriculture. It supports general modernisation of farms and drainage
 - b) *The Guarantee Section*. It finances schemes which provide farmers with guaranteed prices. The main features of the scheme include the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP).

The CAP aims at:-

- increasing agricultural productivity.
- ensuring a fair standard of living for the agricultural community.
- stabilising the markets in farm products.
- providing adequate supplies of food stuffs.
- ensuring supplies to consumers at reasonable prices.

Successes of EEC

Since it came into being, the EEC has made substantial progress. The common external tariff has been established and progressively reduced. Progress has been made in establishing a common market in agriculture. There has been a large increase in the trade among the member countries. In 1957 the original six members did 34 per cent of trade with one another.

The European Monetary System (EMS) was introduced in 1979 in order to obtain a greater degree of stability in the exchange rates among member countries of the EEC.

Introduction

As a member of the International community Zambia inevitably interacts in various ways with other nations. It is therefore imperative for patriotic citizens to know what Zambia's relations with other countries are and to strive to better those relations. In this interaction Zambia is guided by her foreign policy. This unit looks at Zambia's foreign policy and her role in international relations through international organisations.

Objectives

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:-

- define the terms "International Relations" and "International Organisations".
- explain the importance of interactions among nations.
- describe Zambia's foreign policy correctly.
- justify Zambia's membership to international organisations.

Importance of interactions among nations

The term "International Relations" can be defined as relations or interaction among nations in various aspects of human endeavour e.g. political, economic, scientific and socio-cultural.

We now live in a global village: an increase in the oil price on the world market sends the price of any commodity sky-rocketing in Zambia; a civil war in Angola means Zambia cannot export her copper through that

country; when Zambia is hit by a drought, the international community pours in food aid.

Nations of the world are economically interdependent. No one nation produces all the raw materials that it requires for its products nor does it consume all that it produces.

Problems have become trans-national (i.e. they transcend national boundaries)- no one country can solve them single handedly. Examples of these problems are poverty, hunger, disease and environmental degradation. All these dictate the need for peaceful co-existence and co-operation among nations.

Zambia's Foreign Policy

A foreign policy is a set of guidelines which governs a country's relation with other nations.

During the 1st and 2nd Republics (1964 - 1991) Zambia's foreign policy was not formally documented. Although the major focus during this period was on support to the liberation of Southern Africa from white domination, Zambia participated in international affairs through her membership to regional and international organisations.

Factors that shape Zambia's Foreign Policy

Geo-political position and population

Zambia is a landlocked country whose boundaries were imposed by colonialists without regard to ethnic groupings. The result is that Zambia shares the same ethnic groups with all her neighbouring countries along the borders and all her imports and exports routes pass through these countries. Her interest therefore is to maintain good neighbourliness,

peace and harmony with all her neighbours based on this common heritage.

Mono-economy

Historically, Zambia's economy has been based on one product - copper, which is a wasting asset. She wishes to diversify her economy to attract investment from donor countries and international organisations.

Fundamental values

Zambia cherishes the values of human freedom, equality of races and equitable development for all peoples.

Pan - Africanism

At independence, Zambia, together with other independent states supported the liberation struggle for the total liberation of Africa from colonial rule. Having achieved this by 1990, efforts are now towards the economic development and security of the African continent through Pan-African co-operation.

National interests

National interests are those values that Zambia is determined to defend in international relations. These are:-

- *Sovereignty*: Maintenance of her national independence and exercise of her rights as a sovereign state and free determination of her destiny, while respecting the rights of other sovereign states.
- *National Security*: Ensuring peace and security for the Zambian people through peaceful and friendly relations among them and with

neighbours. This is essential for economic and political stability of both Zambia and her neighbours.

- *Protection of citizens:* Ensuring that citizens' rights to liberty, freedom of action and protection of property from arbitrary expropriation at home and abroad.
- *Justice and rule of law:* Ensure that this is promoted in international relations.
- *Democracy:* Cultivation or encouragement of a democratic culture within and among states in her international relations.
- *Protection of environment:* Initiate actions and participate in all efforts aimed at the sustainable use and protection of the environment.
- *Economic development:* Liberalisation of the economy on the basis of a free market system which requires active international co-operation and assistance. Zambia has to identify countries that can provide capital and technology and those that are potential markets.

Principles of Zambia's foreign policy

The following principles form the basis of Zambia's foreign policy:-

- *Self determination:-* All people have a right to self-determination or independence.
- *Equality of peoples:-* No segregation of people on the basis of sex, race, creed or religious beliefs.
- *Human rights and fundamental freedoms:-* Upholding of these e.g. right to life, freedom of association, freedom of speech, liberty and security, cruel, inhuman and degrading of treatment or punishment.
- *Good neighbourliness:-* based on common historical, cultural and ethnic ties with neighbours.

Zambia' foreign policy objectives

The following are the objectives of Zambia's foreign policy:-

- *Improvement of the quality of life:* Zambia can only be a stable and respectable country if her citizens enjoy a high standard of living which she hopes to achieve through international support.
- *Investment and Trade:* Creating of a self-sustaining economy through effective participation in international trade and growth oriented investment.
- *Consolidation of democracy:* encouraging the development of a democratic atmosphere internationally so that Zambia's own democracy can thrive. Allowing citizens to contribute in the formation and implementation of the country's foreign policy.
- *Freedom and social security:* ensuring that the social security and material well being of its citizens by acting in the interests of its citizens as sovereign state in its relations with other countries.
- *International peace and security:* As preconditions for the prosperity and development of any given nation, international peace and security are absolutely necessary. In this regard, Zambia believes that nuclear disarmament and the elimination of international terrorism and drug trafficking be speeded up.

Tools of Zambia's foreign policy

These foreign policy objectives are to be achieved through:-

- *Diplomacy:* the use of negotiation to solve international problems and issues.

- *Military*:- her defence force is not only used to defend her borders and sovereignty but also in the maintenance of international peace and security in line with international agreements e.g. Peace keeping in Mozambique, Angola and Rwanda and Burundi under the United Nations.
- *Human and natural resources*: Zambia's skilled citizens working in other countries are encouraged to behave in a manner that promotes good relations with the host countries. Various sporting links have been fostered with countries in Africa and the world. Her natural resources have been exploited to strengthen trade, cultural and environmental co-operation with other countries.

Focus of Zambia's foreign policy:

Recognising that peace is the foundation of productive relations, Zambia's foreign policy targets the cultivation and maintenance of good relations with other countries and encourages negotiation, arbitration and reconciliation in international conflicts. She has established diplomatic and trade contacts with countries in Africa, Asia, Europe, North and South Africa the Caribbean and Middle East. In addition she is a member of many international, political and economic organisations where common ideas on peace, security and development are shared.

On the African Continent, Zambia is a member of the following organisations:-

- *Southern African Development Community (SADC)*: Which aims at the economic integration of Southern African states through promoting development and cultural co-operation.

- *Front-Line States*: To mediate in political conflicts within and among Southern African states.
- *African Development Bank (ADB)*: this finances economic and development programmes and projects in Zambia.
- *Organisation For African Unity (OAU)*: for the promotion of African unity, peace and the socio-economic development of all African states.

Apart from the above, Zambia is also a member of other international organisations namely the Commonwealth and the United Nations Organisation.

International organisations

Any International organisation is an organisation set up by two or more states to facilitate interaction among the states in one or more fields e.g. political, economic etc. Some of the international organisations are:-

The Commonwealth.

Origin

The Commonwealth was established in 1931 by the statute of Westminster. The Commonwealth is an international organisation of Britain and her former colonies and dominions. It is an association based on voluntary co-operation among members and held together by communities of history, English language, similar education, legal and parliamentary systems.

Aims

The Commonwealth aims to:-

- Promote co-operation among members in their economic and social developments e.g. education, trade, financial and technical aid.
- Provide a forum for members to share and exchange ideas and information in matters of common interest.
- Provide members with a basis for diplomatic support.

Membership.

Originally the Commonwealth consisted of the United Kingdom and its dominions of Canada, South Africa, Australia and New Zealand. With the independence of India and other Afro-Asian colonies, it became multi-racial and by 1996 it had more than 50 member countries of equal status, but recognising the Queen of England as Head of the Commonwealth. However, some countries that were not colonies of Britain have been admitted as members such as Mozambique, Namibia and Cameroon. South Africa which was expelled in 1961 was readmitted in 1995.

Structure

The Commonwealth consists of four main organs:-

- *The Commonwealth Heads of Government Conference:* which is held every two years where views on international and Commonwealth affairs are exchanged.
- *The Finance Ministers' Conference:* which is held regularly to discuss their international economic situation and advise the Heads of Government on what steps to take.

- *High Commissioners:* members exchange diplomats known as High Commissioners. In London, the High Commissioners meet regularly to discuss matters of interest to their Government.
- *The Commonwealth Secretariat . This is based in (London) :* headed by the Secretary General, two Assistants and a staff of 200 persons, the Secretariat co-ordinates the activities of members. It administers conferences of Heads of Government, meetings of the organs of the Commonwealth and keeps members informed on political, social, economic and cultural issues. It is the administrative organ of the Commonwealth.

Functions

Through this structure the following functions are performed:-

- Co-ordination of economic and social development programmes in member countries.
- Administration of the commonwealth fund for technical co-operation, the Commonwealth Multilateral Technical Assistance Scheme funded by voluntary contributions from member countries.
- Dissemination of information on issues of vital interest to member states.

How Zambia has benefited from being a member

Zambia has received financial, scientific and technical assistance from the Commonwealth Fund for Technical Assistance(CFTA).

The Organisation of African Unity (OAU)

At the end of the 19th century people of African origin in America and West Indies formed the Pan-African Movement which aimed at uniting all peoples of Africa together to overcome European influence, prejudice and exploitation. Pan-Africanism is a belief in African Unity.

From 1900 the movement held a number of meetings but the most important was the 1945 Pan- African Conference in Manchester England. This conference was attended by a number of leading African nationalists like Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana and Jomo Kenyatta of Kenya.

On May 25, 1963, a conference was held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia by 33 independent African states at which a Charter was signed by those in attendance setting the Organisation of African Unity. A Charter is a set of guidelines that states the aims, structure and principles of an International Organisation. The OAU Charter has the following aims:-

- To promote unity and solidarity (togetherness) of member states.
- To co-ordinate increased co-operation and efforts to improve the standard of living of the people.
- To defend its members' independence and territorial integrity.
- To put an end to colonialism in Africa.
- To promote international co-operation in the same way as the United Nations.

Membership

Membership is open to all independent African states, both in Africa and surrounding islands.

The Structure

The OAU has four main organs:-

- *Assembly of Heads of State*: comprising all heads of state of member countries or their representatives. It meets once a year to map out OAU policy. Extraordinary meetings may be held whenever there is an emergency. Recently meetings have been held in Addis Ababa, the Headquarters of the OAU in Ethiopia. For the host government, the Head of state chairs the meetings.
- *The Secretariat*: the administrative organ of the OAU. It is headed by the Secretary General chosen by the Assembly, and assisted by the 4 Administrative Secretaries. The term of office of the Secretary General is 4 years.
- *Council of Ministers*: made up of foreign ministers of member states, the council meets twice a year.
- *Committees* on various subjects.
- *Specialised Commissions*: to deal with special problems.

Functions

1. The Secretariat

- Carries out the administrative work of all the other organs of the OAU.
- Carries out duties assigned to it by the OAU Charter, e.g. making sure that decisions of the Council of Ministers are carried out.
- Prepares the OAU budget.
- Prepares the agenda for meetings of the Council of Ministers and other OAU organs.

2. The council of ministers

- Meets twice a year to prepare recommendations to be considered by the Assembly. The Council only makes recommendations which must be approved by the Assembly before being implemented by the Secretariat.

3. The assembly of heads of state

- Meets once a year at the request of member states to deal mainly with OAU Common policy, the Charter and matters of common interest. A two-thirds majority is required on important decisions.

4. Specialised commissions and committees

These may be created by the Assembly of Heads State to deal with a particular problem or issue and may be dissolved (as was the case with the decolonisation committee when the purpose was accomplished in 1996.) There are 5 such organs working under the Assembly.

- ***The educational, cultural, scientific and health commission***
This encourages co-operation in education, culture, science and health matters.
- ***The defence commission***
This is responsible for collective and individual defence in military training. It works closely with the U.N. and cannot use force without the permission of the U.N.
- ***The Commission of mediation, conciliation and arbitration***
This has 21 members elected by the Assembly for 5 years to settle disputes (referred to it) among members peacefully.

- ***The preparatory committee***

It works closely with the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) to encourage economic co-operation in Africa e.g. ratification of the treaty establishing the African Economic Community of which Zambia is one of the few signatories.

OAU's role in maintaining World Peace

The OAU has:

- acted as a powerful lobby for world peace at the United Nations.
- aided the liberation of Africa.
- tried to settle some disputes e.g. the Southern Sudan and the Libyan-Chad conflicts.
- promoted socio-cultural ties among member countries through cultural and sports activities.
- established regional economic stability.
- acted as a forum for useful exchange of ideas and information.

The United Nations Organisations

The United Nations is a world organisation to which all countries belong.

Origin

It was evident with the outbreak of the second world war in 1939, that the league of nations had failed. For six years the world had suffered death and distraction. However, people still believed that the best chance for peace lay in forming international organisations stronger than the league of nations.

Before the end of the war in 1945, the leaders of Britain ,the United States, France, Soviet Union and China (the Big Five) met in San Francisco to draw up a 'Charter' or a "Constitution" for the United Nations Organisation.

Other nations were encouraged to sign the charter. The United Nations came into being on 24th October 1945 made up of 51 nations. Zambia's independence day 24th October is also United Nations day. It was deliberately chosen so as to underscore her faith in the world body.

Membership has increased from 51 in 1945 to about 150 in 1996. Zambia became a member on 1st December 1964 and has a Permanent Representative at the UN Headquarters in New York.

The Charter of the United Nations

The charter sets out the aims of the UN, spells out how these are to be achieved, the principles the UN will follow and how it is to be organised. The charter reads as follows:-

" We the people of the United Nations are determined:

- to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, which twice in our life time has brought untold sorrow to mankind and*
- to reaffirm our faith in fundamental Human Rights in the dignity of men and women and of nations large and small, and*
- to establish conditions under which justice and respect for the obligations arising from treaties and other sources of international law can be maintained, and*
- to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom,*

AND FOR THESE ENDS

- to practice tolerance and live together in peace with one another as good neighbours and*
- to unite to maintain international peace and security, and*

- *to ensure, by the acceptance of principles and the institution of methods, that armed force shall not be used, save in common interest, and*
- *to employ international machinery for the promotion of the economic and social advancement of all peoples.*

HAVE RESOLVED TO COMBINE OUR EFFORTS TO ACCOMPLISH THE AIMS

Accordingly, our respective Governments, through their representatives assembled in the City of San Francisco, who have exhibited their powers found to be in good and due form, have agreed to the present Charter of the United Nations and do hereby establish an international organisation to be known as the "United Nations."

Aims of the United Nations

From the charter, you can see that the aims of the UN are:-

- To maintain international peace and security
- To promote disarmament.
- To encourage international co-operation.
- To combat ignorance, poverty, disease and social ills

Principles of the UN

These are rules which every member must abide by. Every member nation must:-

- regard all other members-nations as equals.
- sincerely fulfil the aims of the charter.
- settle disputes by peaceful means without force or the threat of force.
- help the UN in any action it takes in accordance with the Charter, and not help any country against whom action is being taken.

Membership

Any independent country is free to apply for membership of the UN.

Structure and functions

There are six main organs of the UN each with special tasks to perform:-

1. The General Assembly

Acts as the "Parliament" of the UN where discussions, debates and recommendations or any matter censored by the Charter and raised by any member country is represented and has only one vote. Important issues such as international peace or finance require a two thirds majority before any decision can be passed. The Assembly meets once a year usually in September but emergency meetings can be held as circumstances dictate.

Other functions of the Assembly are to:-

- elect new members whose applications have been approved by the Security Council.
- elect the President of the Security Council and most of the important officials of other UN organs.
- Control the finances of the organisation.

2. The Security Council

This is a small body of 15 members, five of whom France, China, Britain, the United States and Russia are permanent members, and ten are non-permanent members elected every two years by the General Assembly. It meets more frequently than the other UN organs.

The main functions of the Security Council are to maintain World Peace through:-

- investigating any dispute which may threaten peace.
- recommending how disputes should be settled.
- application of economic sanctions against intransigent nations instead of using force.
- dispatching a UN peace keeping force to an area of conflict or taking military action against an aggressor.

Important decisions of the Council require a 9 vote majority in favour but the permanent members have the power of "Veto" to prevent action being taken. When this happens, the matter is referred to the General Assembly for action.

3. The Secretariat

This is the Civil Service of the UN staffed by international workers. It is headed by the Secretary General who is appointed by the General Assembly and recommended by the Security Council for a term of five years. The Secretary General:-

- informs the Security Council of any threats to international peace and security.
- speaks on behalf of the international community and his/her words and deeds are taken seriously.
- has routine consultations with world leaders and attends various UN functions.

The Secretariat employs more than 25,000 civil servants from more than 150 countries, its functions are:-

- to implement the decisions of UN organs.
- to advise the Secretary General on world problems.
- to publish UN reports and run an information service.

- to keep the accounts of the UN.
- to provide translators for the five official UN languages.
- to carry out the day-to-day business, (e.g. correspondence and other clerical work) of running the UN.

4. The International Court of Justice

The is the judicial organ of the UN. It comprises 15 judges elected by the General Assembly and Security Council. The Court sits at the Hague in Holland. Its main function is to arbitrate in disputes among member states and other parties who undertake to abide by the court's decision. The court deals with all cases referred to it by member states and all issues covered by the Charter.

5. The Trusteeship Council

The main function of this Council was to supervise the administration of Trustee Territories to promote the development of self-government. This work is now almost over as many such territories are now independent.

6. The Economic and Social Council

Members of this council are elected by the General Assembly for a period of three years. Its main functions are to:-

- promote Human Rights and fundamental freedoms for all.
- facilitate discussions on economic and social issues.
- organise international conferences and preparation of draft conventions for the General Assembly.
- supervise performance of services approved by the Assembly for UN members.
- co-ordinate the activities of the Specialised Agencies.

- halting conflicts and preserving the peace once it has been achieved (Peacemaking and Peace-keeping).
- taking measures to prevent the recurrence of violence among nations and peoples (Post-conflict Peace-building).

The UN has a wider realm of work for peace through decolonisation, disarmament, international law and socio-economic development. The world has been plagued by a number of conflicts and massive human suffering and deprivation. But this would have been far worse without the continuing efforts of the UN.

Zambia's benefits as a member of the UN

Zambia as a member of the UN participates in the attainment of peace and security. To underscore this, various UN specialised Agencies are active in Zambia, for example:-

- *The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)* carries out programmes in health and education among others.
- *The United Nations WorldHealth Organisation (WHO)* supports and promotes health programmes in Zambia like immunisation campaigns.
- *United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO)* has carried out programmes in the field of education science and culture since 1974.
- *International Monetary Fund (IMF)* gives loans to Zambia and advice on how to manage the monetary and fiscal policies.
- *Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO)* assists Zambia in her drive to improve her food production capacity.

- *United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF)* targets children and women in sectors such as health, education water supply and nutrition.

Conclusion

This unit has covered International Relations in the context of Zambia's Foreign policy and her membership to three international organisations namely the OAU, the Commonwealth, and the UN. International understanding and co-operation are important components of Civics Education. As Civics teachers you should take part in activities that promote international solidarity.

Introduction

Today, people are advocating for the promotion and enjoyment of Human Rights. Human Rights are claims which individuals make against the rulers. These are inherent to all human beings. Every human being irrespective of his or her culture, religion, nationality, political opinion and tribe is entitled to the enjoyment of human rights.

Objectives

By the end of this unit you should be able to;-

- define the concept of Human Rights.
- give a brief history of the United Nations Declaration for Human Rights (UNDHR).
- describe the International Convention on Children's Rights.
- explain the violations of vulnerable groups in society.
- list institutions that safeguard Human Rights.
- explain the role of pressure groups in the promotion of Human Rights.
- give a case study of Zambia on Human Rights (Munyama Human Rights Commission).

Historical background to the United Nations Declaration for Human Rights.

The concept of Human Rights dates back to the time of Magna Carta in England in 1215 AD. It is also associated with the French and American Revolutions which gave rise to the declaration of *des droits de l'homme et du citoyen* and the Bill of Rights (1791). It was a consequence as well as a means of possible solutions to the detrimental Second World War. This led to violations of peoples rights. The United Nations which was formed in 1945, realised that conflict could be best resolved through peaceful means. Hence in 1948, members of the United Nations General Assembly ratified the UNDHR which granted all people the following rights and freedoms:-

- Right to life and liberty.
- Freedom of worship and association.
- Right to social security.
- Freedom of conscience.
- Freedom of movement, residence and nationality.
- Right to food, safe and clean water, health, education and shelter.
- Right to work and leisure.
- Protection from discrimination.
- Protection of home and other property.
- Protection from torture and inhuman treatment.

The above rights are enshrined in the Zambian Constitution under the Bill of Rights. The world observes the 10th of December as a Human Rights Day.

The International Convention on Children's Rights

Although the United Nations touched on the issue of children's rights, the General Assembly of the United Nations felt that there was need for a separate document on Children's Rights. In 1989 the United Nations

ratified the International Convention on Children's Rights Charter which was adopted in 1990.

The convention for Children's Rights included among other basic needs the following:-

- Adequate life style necessary for the promotion of children's emotional, physical and social development.
- Free and compulsory primary education aimed at preparing children to participate effectively in democratic governance.
- Protection from all forms of child abuse, human exploitation, discrimination, against the girl child early marriages, child labour and other forms of violations.

The International Conventions On Women's Rights

Women have since time in memorial been denied full human rights. They have not enjoyed equal rights with men. Women have been associated with the kitchen. They have been brought to shoulder heavy responsibilities and duties in the home, such as firewood and water collection, child rearing and general home management. Above all they have and still are producing 75 percent of the food required for human sustenance. The latter situation has been prevalent in developing countries. On the African continent, women in the sub-Saharan Africa grow about 90 percent of the total food reserves. This is generally perceived as part of women's natural responsibility in rural areas of the developing world. Derek Heater (1995) makes the following quotations from the United Nations report in 1981:-

"Women are half the world's population, one third of the official labour force and do nearly two thirds of the world's work hours.

Yet they receive directly only one tenth of the world's income and own less than one- hundredth of the world's property."

The above quotation shows how women have been made more vulnerable in their political, economic and social rights. Women have been discriminated against after divorce in terms of property inheritance. In terms of credit facilities, women have also been discriminated against. In Zambia today some women especially those in the urban environment have had little access to borrowing finances from business institutions and organisations. Most have had to seek permission from their husbands. Others may borrow using their fathers or brothers. In most parts of Zambia women are not allowed to own land.

It was therefore these social, economic and political violations that made the United Nations Charter to lay emphasis on the equal rights between men and women. According to the United Nations Declaration on Human Rights, all people are born equal and free in dignity and rights. Hence all people are entitled to the same rights. In order to improve the status of women in society, the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women was established in 1946 by the Economic and Social Council. It advocated for raising the status of women in politics, education, economic development, in law and in practice.

In 1952, the United Nations again introduced the Convention on the Political Rights of women. It was aimed at instituting equal human rights between men and women in laws.

In 1962, the Convention on Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age for Marriage and Registration of Marriages was ratified. This was intended to ensure by national legislation, equal rights for married people.

In 1979, the Discrimination Against Women was ratified. It examined women's rights in politics, health, education, public life, nationality and family life.

In 1993, the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women commission was introduced. This was intended to eradicate any forms of physical, sexual and psychological discrimination against the female population throughout the world.

In 1995, a World Conference on Women was also held in Beijing, China. Thus, we can see that the United Nations has advocated for the empowerment of women in all fields of human endeavour.

Violations of Human Rights

Women and girls

In many spheres of work women have been denied equal rights by their male counterparts. The girl child has always been discriminated against from birth into adulthood. Most parents have had preference for the boy child in terms of education, health, nutrition and so on. In terms of school enrolment, in Zambia, statistical evidence shows that more boys than girls are enrolled into schools. In developing countries, the prejudice against the girl child tends to be based on sexism. In some cases, girls have been pulled out of schools to enter into early marriages as well as to assist with household chores. It is important to bear in mind that this category of the human population too should enjoy equal rights with men. The teaching of Civics always encourages the development of respect for others.

Refugees

Another group that has been vulnerable since biblical times are refugees and these can be defined as groups of people who flee from their countries to live in other countries for religious, economic, political and other forms of social violations. Almost all countries have received refugees. Refugees have lost most of their rights and fundamental freedoms. Those who run away from their countries because of political and other forms of

conflict have faced psychological miseries. They have been separated from their families. They have lost their property and have been denied the chance to produce their own food and so on. Refugees usually depend on charity from their host countries. The United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) sees to it that these people are provided with health facilities, education, clean and safe water and shelter. In some cases, jobs have been made available to them.

Today, the problem of refugees has become a matter of global concern. All host nations should tolerate refugees. They too have the right to enjoy all forms of Human Rights and fundamental freedoms.

Prisoners

These too have suffered in terms of the denial of Human Rights. In most countries, prisoners may be detained without trial. Sometimes law breakers have been given unfair trial. National governments should not interfere with the Courts of Law. They should be made to bear in mind that no human being can be imprisoned without evidence that they are guilty of an offence. Sometimes people have been indefinitely put in police cells where they have been tortured and some cases they have died there.

The Aged

Elderly people have been discussed during the United Nations Conventions for example, the World Assembly on ageing was convened in Vienna in 1982. It emphasised action in employment, education, financial security; health, housing, nutrition and social security. The General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council urges governments and NGOs to prioritise the matter of ageing populations. They have also advocated for the creation of government ministries that would look into the plight of these vulnerable people.

Institutions that promote Human Rights.

1. The United Nations Centre for Human Rights

The United Nations Centre for Human Rights has its Headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland. It has a liaison office in New York. The centre is headed by the Under Secretary for Human Rights. The functions of this organisation are outlined below:-

- It assists the General Assembly, the Economic and Social Council, the Commission on Human Rights and UN bodies to promote peoples' rights and fundamental freedoms.
- It works in liaison with governmental, inter-governmental and non-governmental organisations to gather and collect information on Human Rights. It publishes articles on Human Rights issues.
- It also offers secretarial services and substantive information to UN organisations which advocate for the promotion of peoples' rights.

2. The European Court and Commission

Advocates for international co-operation to protect peoples' rights. Most European countries are members. They see to it that any person who feels that his or her rights have been denied should appeal to the court and commission which comprises the commission of the body of experts of the court with one judge from each member country but he or she should not represent their country of nationality in dealing with cases.

3. The Committee of Ministers of Foreign Affairs from all members states. The commission takes a long-time in solving peoples' problems.

Non-Governmental Organisations

Non-governmental Organisations are pressure groups that support the promotion of peoples rights and freedoms, for example the Minority Rights which has its headquarters in London pressurises rights for groups of people in the world whose rights have been violated through various forms of discrimination. They also receive information on human rights violations and investigate them in order to find solutions. Amnesty International sees to it that people, world over are not tortured and imprisoned without fair trial. It ensures that those who are imprisoned unjustly are released.

The Organisation of African Unity through its Charter sees to it that the people of Africa respect each others' rights. It advocates for peace and security among nations. It observes the concept of attitudes for example, co-operation, tolerance, inter-dependence and social justice.

The United Nations Commission for Refugees sees to it that refugees are offered asylum and are provided with all basic human requirements.

At local level, Zambia has many pressure groups that offer various forms of assistance such as training skills, health, water and other social and economic services to the disadvantaged groups. Some of these groups include Churches, the Women Lobby Group and many more. NGOs also receive and investigate cases of human rights violation. They conduct seminars and workshops to educate people and disseminate information on how to solve human rights violations.

The Munyama Human Rights Commission Report

The Munyama Human Rights Commission was appointed by President Chiluba in 1993 to look into the plight of vulnerable groups such as those imprisoned without trial, those who are tortured in police cells and prisons and women who are bartered by their husbands. The commission has documented several cases which have been outlined in the report.

Introduction

Conflict can be defined as a misunderstanding between two persons or countries. Conflict may take place in the home, school, community, country, region or the world. The First and Second World Wars were extreme forms of conflict at global level.

Objectives

By the end of the unit, you should be able to:-

- define the concepts: conflict, peace and resolution.
- describe the causes and effects of conflict at national, regional and global levels.
- suggest possible solutions to conflict.
- conduct a case study of conflict in Zambia.

In a multi-party system, conflict may occur over inter-party ideologies. The struggle may be over power, positions, wealth and recognition. Conflict can also be intra-state (domestic) or inter-state in nature.

Peace

Peace signifies the absence of conflict. Currently many governments spend a lot of financial resources to buy firearms and ammunition. As a result some of them are undergoing a state of absolute poverty. However, most peace loving nations get concerned when peace ceases to be the order of the day. Peace promotes a given country's national unity and harmony. The United Nations organisation advocates for international peace in

quest to accord any form of conflict. Peace can also be described as a condition through which a sovereign state can achieve national unity and be proud of its national heritage. Peace promotes social development. It stands for condition of national scourge such as, poverty, hunger, disease and environmental degradation.

Resolution

Resolution of conflict is a way of negotiation through diplomatic means. This can be attained through round table discussions and negotiations at national, regional and global levels.

Causes and forms of conflict

Conflict can be attributed to social, political and economic reasons. Below are some of the forms of conflict that afflict human beings the world over:-

Crime

Crime is a scourge associated with urbanisation which is characterised by overcrowding, drug abuse etc. The problem is rampant among the disadvantaged groups. Added to this problem is the unequal distribution of resources which is a characteristics of developing countries.

Racial Discrimination

Racial discrimination is a characteristic of racial superiority by certain racial groups. The founder minority white South African population are a good example of people who believed in this theory. Racism is associated with disputes in job opportunities and provision of social amenities like schools, hospitals, recreation facilities and so on.

Racial Segregation

Racial segregation stands for separate development policies for different racial groups. The former Apartheid regime of South Africa was renowned for this policy. Blacks, Coloureds and Indians were segregated against. Africans were confined to Bantustans or homelands. Although these areas were referred to as independent lands, they were not recognised by the international community.

Genocide

Genocide involves the killing of one group by another. During the reign of Adolf Hitler between 1939 and 1945, 6 million Jews were killed. In mid 1994, Hutus killed one million Tutsis and moderate Hutus in Rwanda. Genocide is another extreme form of conflict.

Ethnic Conflict

When tribal groupings become more loyal to its own kind than to the nation, ethnic conflict arises. Cultural differences may also be a cause of conflict. Ethnic conflicts have been experienced in Nigeria, Chad and the Sudan. Somalia is one country in Africa which has experienced inter-clan wars. Genocide can be attributed to a selfish leadership who has cared less for the majority.

Colonial Boundaries

Colonial boundaries were demarcated without regard for various ethnic groups. The partition of Africa by European powers, Britain, Germany, Belgium, Spain, Portugal, France and Italy aimed at acquiring national resources such as cotton, cocoa, timber and minerals from Africa, created some conflict among countries.

The result of the division of the continent was disparity between Africa and Europe in terms of social and economic development. Colonial boundaries also divided people who spoke similar languages and practised similar cultures, customs and traditions. These colonial boundaries have also led to border conflicts e.g. Chad, Libya, Somalia and Kenya, Ethiopia and Somalia.

Unequal Distribution of scarce resources

Colonialism resulted in unequal distribution of resources. The situation was made more critical by uneven patterns of development which usually affected various ethnic groups. For example, the people of northern Uganda felt that the former British establishment favoured the population of Southern Uganda in terms of economic development. At the world level the distribution is extreme. For instance 20 percent of the world's population in developed countries consume 80 percent of the world's resources. Unfair distribution of resources have affected the governance of the African countries. Finances which are meant for the development of some countries have fallen into the hands of a few political figure heads.

Corruption

This can lead to unfair distribution of resources and political instability.

Religious Conflicts

Religious conflict may arise when a country denies its citizens the right to practice their religion of their choice. Countries like Lebanon and India have experienced religious conflicts.

Class Conflict

Class conflict is a social phenomenon which takes place between the rich and the poor. This type of conflict is as a result of "exploitation" of the

poor by the rich. In some countries this conflict has resulted in strikes, riots, civil wars and revolution e.g. Russia, Cuba and China.

Gender conflict

Gender conflict is a common feature through out the world. Gender conflict is more prominent in terms of land and property ownership. Women grow more food in the developing world and yet they have little control over what they produce.

National or civil wars

National conflicts have been common in Africa since the mid 1970s. The former Portuguese colonies of Angola and Mozambique experienced conflicts before and after independence. In Europe, the former republic of Yugoslavia experienced religious and political differences between Christian Serbs and Moslem believers. Other African countries that have experienced conflict are Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Liberia, South Africa and Sudan.

Inter - state conflict

Conflicts do not only exist within a country but may also take place between countries. In the 1970s former dictator Idi Amin of Uganda occupied part of the Republic of Tanzania. This inter-state problem led to the ousting of Amin. During the 1970s and 80s the former White South African regime waged war on Angola and Mozambique. In 1980 Iraq and Iran fought over a piece of land. In 1991 Iraq invaded Kuwait over oil. This resulted into the desert storm operation which was an alliance of western countries like the United Kingdom, USA, France and others.

In the Middle East conflict has existed since 1948 when Israel was created. This conflict is over territorial boundaries and economic areas like the Suez Canal and fishing grounds in the Mediterranean sea.

Effects of conflict on society

Wars and conflicts have resulted in the abuse of human rights and social justice. The numerous wars in a number of countries on the African continent have resulted in human rights violation through indiscriminating rape, displacement of people and mass involvement's of refugees from one country to another. This has been a matter of concern for the international community. Usually, countries afflicted by war do not develop economically and socially.

Ways of resolving conflicts

The world community attempts to stop conflicts in the following ways:-

- Introducing laws and regulations that offer and protect peoples, rights and fundamental freedoms.
- Introducing democratic governance to maintain law and order which permits equitable use of the resources and use of the means of production, land, capital and technical skills and knowledge.
- Creating regional and international organisations to discuss and negotiate security, peace, co-operation, tolerance, understanding and social justice and development.
- Encouraging refugees to return to their homelands where they can enjoy their social and political freedoms.
- Encouraging free trade and movement of goods between countries and continents.
- Empowering the female population to participate effectively in planning and decision making. This calls for better political, economic and social positions in relation to those of the male population.
- Introducing common human rights policies that protect peoples' rights.
- Teaching about peace, education and co-operation.
- Using international tribunals like the International Court of Justice to resolve political conflict.

- Sending peace keeping forces to areas of conflicts.
- Applying economic sanctions, restricting the arms trade and nuclear disarmament.
- Using preventive diplomacy.

Introduction

Demographic factors refer to changes that take place in a population. The factors of population change include births, deaths and migration. These three variables are referred to as components which affect population change. These variables determine the numbers in a population, its age composition and how fast it is growing or declining. People studying such type of information may ask questions such as:-

How many are they?

What are their ages?

How many births have occurred and to whom?

What are the characteristics of those who die or migrate?

How and why will these change?

It is important to study these changes because human society is a human made environment within which these processes take place. For instance, beliefs and attitudes towards procreation, marriage customs, the structure of the family, the frequency with which people have children, standard of living, public health practices and methods of treating the ill are closely related to the incidence of mortality. Ethnic and religious conflicts, territorial differences in economic opportunity, immigration laws, and the uprooting of peoples by war are all principal determinants of migration. Because social factors are so central in the causes of these factors (births, deaths and migration) it is important to study the characteristics that are associated with these factors.

Learning out comes

By the end of this unit you should be able to:

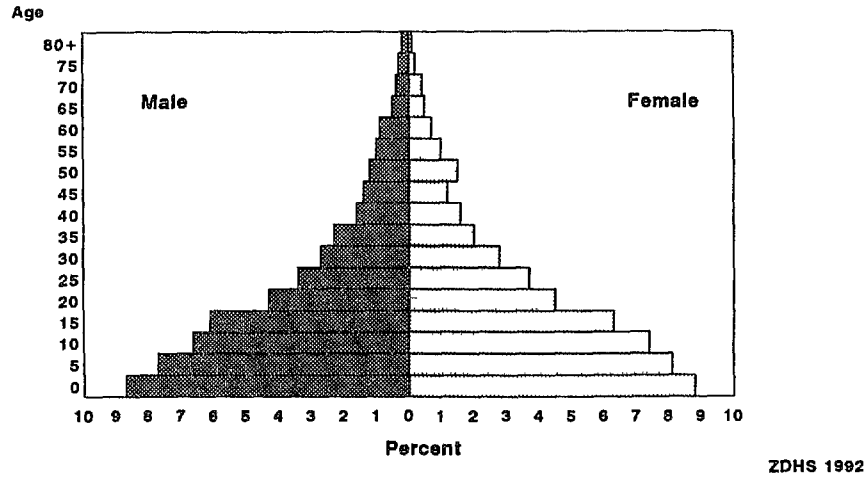
- discuss factors that lead to population change.
- discuss population policy.
- outline the positive effects on rapid population growth on the environment.
- discuss the negative effects of population growth on the environment.
- outline ways of how they can empower the community to care for the environment.
- suggest some policies in the community that can contribute to positive values of caring for the environment.

Characteristics of Population

It is not only important to know the absolute numbers of the population inhabiting a selected area but it is also important to learn about their characteristics. A population has measurable attributes such as age, sex, marital status, citizenship, rural-urban residence, education, occupation and income.

Age and sex: These are very important because they are directly related to fertility and mortality. For instance, only women aged 15-49 are capable of bearing children. Also, people die more frequently at some ages than others. The number of births and deaths clearly depend to some degree on the age-sex composition of a population. For example, from the 1990 Census of Population, the Zambian age structure was as given below:-

Distribution of the (de facto) Household Population by Age, Zambia 1992



More than 50 percent of the population was below the age of 15.

Marital Status: The institution of marriage is universal and nearly in all societies the vast majority of births occur to married women. Therefore the number of marriages and the marital composition of a population are closely related to trends in the number of births.

Other characteristics may be economic in nature. Occupation groups, for example differ with respect to fertility and mortality. Occupational distribution of a population also indicates a great deal about its socio-economic structure apart from the possible relevance of such information to population trends.

Theories of population

Demographic factors discussed earlier have always been associated with theories. These theories are important in providing explanations to population changes over time. One of the prominent theories is that of Thomas Malthus. His theory postulates that unless there are preventive

checks to the population, it will outstrip the available resources in terms of food supply. Malthus theory postulated that population increased arithmetically (1, 3, 6, 9) while food supply increased geometrically (2, 4, 6, 8). The preventive checks referred to in his theory were that population growth could only be checked through abstinence from sexual activities or through hunger, famine, war and disease. The Malthusian theory has been criticised by several authors pointing out that Malthus was short sighted and could not foresee the changes that would take place in technology. Some of these changes include the introduction of fertilisers to produce high yielding crops as well as family planning programmes to slow down population growth.

Demographic transition theory

This is another population theory that offers a partial explanation to population trends that occurred to a number of European countries. The theory provides a form of advice to the developing countries as to the various stages that they might go through before their populations can decline. The theory explains that before a population can decline it is characterised by different stages such as high mortality, declining mortality, lower fertility and practice of family planning methods.

First Stage:- This stage is characterized by high mortality because of the absence of facilities such as modern medicine and poor sanitation. In this case birth rates tend to be high as a form of replacement for high deaths occurring in a population.

Second Stage:- For this stage mortality begins to decline because of improvement in technology. However, births are still very high .

Third Stage:- In this particular stage fertility begins to decline simply because individuals begin consciously to control their fertility. Institutions that favour fertility reduction are set up.

It is important to analyse whether this theory can be relevant to changes taking place in different populations.

Population policies

Recognising that social and economic problems may be caused by particular levels of population growth and by distribution of populations, governments at various stages have intervened in an attempt to regulate population dynamics. Population policies are those measures adopted by governments to alter the natural course of population change. The ultimate aim is the achievement of primary goals like the enhancement of national security, and of economic and social welfare. There are two types of policies "Pro-natalist" and "Anti-natalist".

Pro-natalist exist mainly in countries where fertility has fallen. It embraces strategies of promoting positive attitudes to child bearing through the provision of financial incentives and the creation of moral climate approving large families.

Anti-natalist are those policies mainly aimed at reducing fertility. For instance, Zambia pronounced its population policy in 1989 which is anti-natalist aimed at reducing fertility levels from 7.2 children per woman to at least 4 children per woman by the year 2000.

World population

Although estimates of the world's population before the twentieth century are less reliable, it is estimated that today the world population exceeds five billion people and has been growing at a very fast rate since 1700. The United Nations (1988) reported that since the 18th century the rate of growth of population speeded up largely because of falling death rates, so that on average for many countries life expectancy increased.

The unprecedented growth rates of the population has far reaching consequences for the development process of many countries. For instance, during the past decades issues concerning population growth have become the centre of controversy with population conferences held in 1974, 1984 and 1994 (Bucharest, Mexico, Cairo). At all these conferences, focus has been on the advantages and disadvantages of rapid population growth. Population growth has been viewed as an obstacle to development because of the pressure it continues to exert on the resources and the declining standards of living in many parts of the world. Alternatively population growth has not been viewed as a problem as it continues to stimulate technology to meet the demands of increasing population. Therefore, the linkages between population growth and the environment are among the issues causing concern to environmentalists, social scientists, educationists and many others concerned with policy making in different countries.

Population growth and renewable and non-renewable resources

Renewable resources are those that can be replenished like forests while non-renewable resources can not be replenished like minerals. In many developing countries forests are a common property where all have access without limitations. Because of this, there is large scale degradation without necessarily foreseeing the importance of forests in protecting the environment. For instance, the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED:1987) report points out that in spite of the massive investment in urban electrification, the majority of urban households in developing countries depend on fuel-wood for cooking and heating. In Zambia 65 - 100 percent of urban households use fuel-wood and charcoal for cooking and heating. The destruction or conversion can exert serious long term effects on the environment particularly the ecology, rain-cycle and on human and plant life. It is therefore important for us to understand that forests constitute a fundamental factor of environmental stability.

World level examples of population pressure on the forests are cited from Brazil and India. Brazil's development strategies of encouraging migration into the Amazon forest have been responsible for the destruction of the rain forests. In India and China the destruction is directly tied to over-population as timber cutters respond to the needs of the cities for fire-wood and timber. Other resources like wildlife are also endangered. Water also continues to be polluted.

It is estimated that non- renewable resources are limited, and these will probably be consumed within the next few hundred years. These products include fossil fuel, coal, petroleum and natural gas. It is pointed out in the same report that the consumption of these fossil fuels e.g. coal has increased since 1965. In 1994 the same commission pointed out that only 1.2 percent of the total value of all production is that of non-fuel mineral resources. This implies that ever increasing population has to rely on other sources of energy.

Population growth and agricultural practices

Changes in agricultural practices have contributed to environmental degradation. Brown (1989) points out that "nowhere is this more clear than in Africa where a combination of recorded population growth and wide spread degradation is reducing the grain productivity". Africa's grain productivity in particular has declined since 1967 and this has converted the continent into a grain importer thereby accumulating a huge debt. Brown also mentions that forest productivity is being diminished by grassland degradation. This problem is highly visible in Africa (Botswana) where livestock numbers have expanded nearly as fast as human population. Boserup (1990) also shows a relationship between land area and the population that has to be supported. She says in most cases where there has been population pressure, land has continued to be cleared and improved to give way to different systems of agriculture. In this case the concept of carrying capacity should be emphasised. This is the optimum

size of population that can be supported by the environment in terms of available resources .

At home (Zambia) the *Chitemene System* of agriculture is one good example of an ecological disaster if it continues to be practised. This is because forests regenerate after a long time and there is a possibility of desertification in the near future.

With increasing population there has been the need to produce enough food through use of pesticides and fertilizers. Achievements of such practices have been recorded in India and China. However, the major issue is that of its effect on the environment. There may be inadequate statistical data to show the current quantity of pesticides in the environment, but it is assumed that the whole world has been exposed to DDT.

Population growth and pollution

Population growth has been cited among the major contributors to the deterioration of the environment. Increased consumption comes in as a result of increased population. Air, water and the surroundings that we live in are classic examples of environmental degradation where population is a major contributor. Both developed and developing countries' combustion of products are exhausted into the atmosphere causing an environmental imbalance. As for water, in many developing countries as the population grows there is more demand for sewerage treatment facilities which might have been adequate before. It is also a well known fact that today many countries are facing a disposal crisis for most of their waste products. Therefore, increased population will produce more wastes and reduce the valuability of land for dumping wastes.

Positive effects of population on the environment

There are situations where the population is not a threat to the environment. The 1974 Bucharest Conference viewed population growth as a real problem and saw the need to adopt relevant policies which could help the proper utilisation of the available resources. Todaro (1989) states that in terms of resource consumption, developed countries with less than one quarter of the world population consume directly almost 16 times as much of the world's food energy and material resources. Some people strongly argue that rapid population growth may not prevent fast economic growth and that population growth is not a major source of environmental degradation. They argue that although food shortages are always associated with population growth it may not be true. Hunger and diet deficiency may be so prevalent in many developing countries, but the major problem is that food supplies are controlled by government programmes and farmers who want to sell at a profit where the majority of the population may not afford to pay.

Rapid population growth provides labour supply in countries where there are numerous industries.

Conclusion

In Zambia, the way we keep our environment shows the extent of the sense of responsibility to property and also respect for our resources. We should be aware that we live in a world of interdependence within our ecosystem and therefore we should bring up citizens who do not only exploit the environment but also take care of it by e.g. using toilets, planting trees and cleaning the surroundings. These values should be inculcated in pupils and the surrounding community. Therefore, a school should be a model of environmental awareness to the surrounding community. Our environment faces major problems of deforestation, firewood, air pollution, garbage dumping, contamination of water, soil degradation, dilapidated and dirty buildings and poor sanitation. There is

therefore need to educate the pupils on environmental problems. They should acquire values of concern and responsibility for the them to participate in efforts to care for the environment. Today, many countries are faced with the challenge of re-afforestation which have proved successful where they have been implemented.

This unit has focused on the relationship between population and the environment. This aspect is important in that we live in a community where we are interdependent. The unit has also considered the positive and negative effects of population growth on the environment.

Introduction

Over the past decades there has been increasing pressure on governments to recognise the importance of women's contribution to developmental issues. This is because a number of development strategies have failed to address women as equal partners in development.

A clear understanding and appreciation of how gender acts as a social variable and organising principle in society which in turn affects access to land, control over development, resources and other benefits is crucial. This will bring an increased awareness, understanding and appreciation of gender issues and also of areas in which women are discriminated against. This unit focuses on certain gender issues in order to make you aware of the importance of pressurising governments and society to promote gender equality in all aspects of development.

Objectives

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe the historical development of Women in Development (WID) and its linkages to Women and Development (WAD) and Gender and Development (GAD).
- distinguish between gender and sex roles.
- discuss how cultural practices and myths affect male and female participation in education and socio-economic development.
- discuss how gender roles are linked to the value system of society.

- describe how perceived gender roles affect female participation in development.
- discuss the role of government and NGOs in promoting gender equity in development.

Terminology

Gender: Refers to the identity of men and women in any society. It is a variable that is used to establish the socio-cultural relationship between males and females. It is culturally and physiologically determined as opposed to sex which is biologically determined.

Development: This concept has no universally agreed upon definition. It may be taken to refer to economic growth, modernisation or transformation in the quality of social, cultural and economic status of individuals as a given society moves from one level to another. The definition involves an improvement in the quality of life for all (see unit 2 on Economics).

Myths: Beliefs which people have about men and women in society. These beliefs may be in terms of personal qualities, mental capabilities, physical characteristics and roles and duties in society.

Gender roles: These are acquired modes of behaviour in a given social context. They determine which activities, tasks and responsibilities are considered feminine or masculine. In terms of men's and women's activities gender roles may be termed reproductive, productive or community-linked.

Sex roles: refers to the function that a male or female performs by virtue of his or her biological characteristics. Sex roles are closely linked to human reproduction.

The emergence of gender and development

In the quest to deal with the unequal situation between men and women, various women's movements and issues as advanced by United Nations organisations and other bodies, have been developed through time. Issues of gender and sex have been of great interest as addressed by this question "Why Women in Development when development is thought to benefit everyone?" This doesn't seem to be the case as development planning and implementation is skewed towards the modern and public sector which favours mostly men. Since the recognition of this fact various approaches have been advanced.

Before the theoretical approach of Gender and Development, women's movements and world bodies came up with Women in Development analysis (WID). WID focused on highlighting the important roles of women and documenting the need for women's equitable position in society and the development process. Therefore, WID exclusively focused on women . The WID approach aims at integrating women in development by increasing their participation (through separate programmes/projects for women), but does not necessarily address itself to the benefits of women's participation. This approach worsened the situation for women by overburdening them with additional activities and further marginalizing them from the mainstream of development programmes. However, many developing countries including Zambia adopted the WID approach.

The Women and Development (WAD) approach which developed in the 1970s is Marxist oriented in that it uses the analogy of North-South relations to explain women's oppression and exploitation by men. The exploitation of women by men is perceived as arising from the existing male dominated or patriarchal structures. This approach suggests that women can only develop by avoiding men i.e. through self-reliance. It is derived from the development theory analogy that suggests that "the

South can only gain freedom and develop by cutting ties with the exploitative developed North".

The Gender and Development (GAD) approach is more of a reaction to the first two approaches which helped further marginalize the women in socio-economic development. GAD deals with what both women and men do by seeking equal participation and equal employment benefits. Overall, this approach seeks to understand the root causes of gender inequality such as poverty and lack of basic services and addresses itself to these causes. It emphasises equality of benefit and control and concerns itself with social construction of gender that also determines division of labour, access and control of resources. Therefore GAD involves greater participation of women and men especially the poor, in defining and shaping the development process with the ultimate goal of empowering women. This means that GAD also gives special attention to women.

Gender and sex roles

Distinguishing various roles, duties, and responsibilities pertaining to women and men in the prevailing division of labour and understanding how these are incorporated into the value system of society is very important. The distinctions assist one to understand why people behave in certain ways at different times. Gender roles are learnt socio-cultural modes of behaviour and they condition activities, tasks and responsibilities of men and women. Sex roles are biological roles performed by men and women e.g. sperm production by men or conception and lactation by women. Sex roles are very few and are mainly restricted to child bearing.

Gender, myths, values and attitudes

Gender values and attitudes affect participation of men and women in the development process. At the individual level, gender values affect one's perception and belief of what he or she should be doing (his or her role)

and is capable of doing depending on which gender he or she belongs to. At societal level, jobs, social services, credit facilities and so on, are designed to what is deemed appropriate to that gender. The following are some of the commonly held myths, attitudes and values about males and females:-

- Boys are academically more intelligent than girls.
- Boys are good at science and mathematics subjects while girls are weak in these areas.
- Boys are assertive or aggressive while girls are less assertive and are passive.
- Girls are kind.
- Boys are stronger.
- Men are breadwinners.
- Men are the heads of families.
- Girls will always get married.
- Boys propagate lineage (family name).
- Men are decision makers.
- A woman's/girl's place is in the kitchen.
- Men are interested in things and ideas while women are interested in people and feelings.
- Girls are submissive.

The above stereo-typed myths, values and attitudes are usually assumed to be correct without critically appraising them. Though their content may not be necessarily true, they are influential to those who uphold them. For instance, married women who wish to hold on to their "respectable" status will argue, among others, that single mothers are miserable women.

Institutions that perpetuate gender myths, values and attitudes

In society, there are institutions that help transmit and promote gender values and attitudes. Despite the talk about equality of opportunity in all

aspects of development there is a deeper current of assumptions that the capabilities, interests and behaviour of individuals are related to their sex. These assumptions manifest themselves in different treatment of females and males as briefly indicated by the following institutions:-

1. Learning institutions

In institutions of learning, males and females are treated differently because of the upheld myths, values and attitudes. Different experiences and training opportunities are offered in a gender discriminatory manner. Values and attitudes are imparted to children by teachers, books and peers. A female student, for instance, may lose her academic potential in a mathematics subject because she may believe that females are not good at mathematics. Other results of perpetuating myths, values and attitudes are:-

- Boys are offered science and mathematics subjects while girls are made to study the traditional "girls" subject courses such as Home Economics, Typing and Nursing.
- Teachers expect boys to be more intelligent than girls and encourage them to work hard.
- Teachers make boys participate more in class than girls .
- Boys take technical subjects and even pursue technical courses unlike the girls. For example, boys become engineers and doctors while girls become nurses and secretaries.

2. The Family

This is the primary and most important social unit of society. It serves the functions of reproduction, production, socialisation, consumption and

provision of labour. The family transmits and promotes gender values and attitudes in the following ways:-

- The belief that boys will propagate lineage and support the family while girls get married. This marginalizes girls in a home.
- In case of limited resources families prefer to educate and spend more money on boys than on girls if made to choose between the two sexes.
- Parents make girls do most of the household work, leaving them with little or no time for study.
- Girls perform poorly at school because they are made to believe that they will get married and be taken care of.

3. Traditional institutions(Initiation Ceremonies, etc.)

Socialisation in these institutions leads to:-

- Girls becoming passive in class if they undergo initiation ceremonies.
- Women not taking part in decision making at home or even at the work place.
- Women, especially married ones, becoming submissive to men.

4. The church

Religious institutions perpetuate gender myths, values and attitudes in the following ways:-

- Decisions are usually made to discriminate against women e.g. there may be no female pastors because of gender.

- Doctrines that are based on the submissive nature of women denied them an opportunity to hold positions of leadership in the church.

5. *Other agents of socialisation* that reinforce sex-discriminatory behaviour include the community (e.g. through peer groups) and the mass media folk heroes(e.g. models and musicians).

Effect of myths, values and attitudes on education and development.

The practices resulting from the reinforced gender values, attitudes and beliefs are as follows:-

- Poor performance of girls in class since they lack the spirit of competition.
- Better performance and participation of boys in class.
- High progression for boys while most girls drop-out.
- Fewer women in managerial decision making positions.
- More women in "inferior" types of jobs.
- Women's economic dependency on men.
- At work, women stay in the same positions because it is not feminine to be ambitious. Men, even those who are less competent, come and get promoted because there is nothing wrong with men being ambitious.

Gender and politics in zambia

Female representation in the highest circles of government is less than 10 percent world wide. Women hold no ministerial positions in 93 countries around the world. In 1990, only 3.5 percent of cabinet positions around the world were held by women. By 1991 there were 7 female heads of state. In 1996, only 2 women were cabinet ministers in Zambia. The change from one party to a multi-party system has not changed the position of women in terms of national decision making either.

It should be observed that women's formal and non-formal contribution to the economy is enormous. Their access to political institutions cannot only enhance production and welfare for all. Women should not only be represented but be allowed to present men and women. They should be allowed to participate effectively without intimidation or any form of gender-based discrimination. But the following legislative and legal matters should be addressed if women are to achieve greater political empowerment:-

- Ownership and access to land.
- Access to credit and loan facilities.
- Promotion of women to high public offices.
- Elimination of gender discrimination in employment and remuneration.
- Provision of social services such as water and health that would improve women's roles and reduce their work load.

Government and NGOs role in promoting women's participation in development

There are several ways in which women's status can be improved so that there is increased participation of women in national development. Education plays a major role in fostering this change. Women who have some educational background stand a better chance in life and can have better nutritional status for their families among others.

Despite women's exposure to some form of education not all end up being empowered as seen from their inability to infiltrate the "male" jobs or own land and property or even have full rights to inheritance of property.

Within the Zambian government there is only one wing called the Women in Development unit at the National Commission for Development Planning (NCDP) which aims at fostering women's rights to equal participation with men in national issues. Otherwise most of the groups

that promote women participation in national development belong to the voluntary and non-governmental organisations.

There are a number of Non-governmental organisations that aim at promoting the welfare of women. A number of these NGOs were formed immediately after the 1980 World conference on women. They are co-ordinated by an umbrella body known as the Non-governmental Co-ordinating Committee (NGOCC) to avoid duplication of roles. In Zambia over 30 NGO's are members of the NGOCC. Roles of these Non-governmental organisations vary from place to place, but all aim to ensure that there is full participation of women in national development issues. In a democratic society like Zambia, NGO's have become an important form of pressure group. They keep an eye on the government so that issues aimed at improving the welfare of women are looked into. Some of them are:-

1. *The Village Industry Service (VIS)*. VIS for sometime has been conducting various courses for both men and women to increase their skills of entrepreneurship. It also provides credit assistance to strengthen women's entrepreneurship capacity.
2. *The Zambia Association for Research and Development (ZARD)* is also an important organisation that conducts research on the welfare of women. Such research helps the national planners and implementors to identify areas of focus in improving their standard of living.
3. *Women's Lobby Group* is another pressure group aimed at encouraging female participation. For instance in 1995/96 this group undertook several activities to encourage women to participate in politics and decision making.

There are several other organisations that campaign against discrimination against women. Some of them provide financial assistance like Women's Finance Trust Fund. Others provide assistance in form of reform of

women behaviour such as the *Tasitha*, Centre for Battered Women and the Young Women's Christian Association(YWCA). Others provide assistance in form of protecting women's rights such as the Legal Aid Clinic for Women. With several world conferences that always emphasize the importance of recognizing females as equal partners in development, it is important that women and the girl child receive adequate education. This will encourage them to participate fully in all areas of development.

SUGGESTED METHODOLOGIES AND STRATEGIES OF TEACHING CIVICS

This manual examines methods and strategies of teaching Civics. As the heading reads, the suggested methods referred to below, can be applied together with other techniques the teacher may wish to use.

What is Civics?

Civics is a living subject. It deals with human beings and their natural and social environments. This means that it operates within one's immediate environment. The teaching of Civics can also be based on the aspect of awareness creation about people's social, cultural, political and economic development. Pupils ought to be sensitized to the idea of living and working together in one world. They have to know that they live in a multi-cultural and multi-racial environment inhabited by people with different religious practices, cultural values, traditions and customs as well as diverse political ideologies and economic policies.

Civics is an interdisciplinary subject. This means that it covers a wide range of subjects in the school curriculum. Civics can be taught through History, Geography, Environmental Science, Moral and Spiritual Education, Political Science and Economics.

The teaching of core values, attitudes, social and study skills are not often emphasized. These are necessary in character shaping of pupils. The subject should therefore be taught in such a way that Pupils should grow up into useful global citizens.

Methods of Teaching

Research has proved that the success of a lesson depends on the type of methods applied during the learning process. In selecting these methods the teacher should consider the pupil's varied abilities, interests and levels of learning. The method chosen should be pupil - centred rather than teacher-centred. The method should encourage maximum pupil participation. The teacher therefore plays the role of a facilitator. Pupil motivation can be achieved by applying a wide range of teaching and learning methods.

Below are some of the suggested methods which can be used to teach civics effectively:-

- *Debate*:- this involves an argument or contest or formal discussion between two groups of people. The purpose of debate is to encourage pupils to develop the skill and ability to argue. Among the topics that can be presented using the debate method are democracy and dictatorship, conflict and conflict resolution, Human Rights, International Relations and Political Parties in relation to the Zambian struggle for independence.
- *Brain storming*:- this is a method which can be applied at the beginning of a problem solving solution. It is recommended because it involves critical thinking or analytical skills. In this way, therefore, a wide range of alternative solutions to the problem can be arrived at. Human Rights, Democracy, Conflict and Conflict resolution are among the topics suitable for this method.
- *Inquiry approach*:- this technique enables the pupil to gather information through questioning in order to arrive at a valid conclusion. The method promotes child interaction and creativity. It covers the following aspects:-
 - identification of the problem.
 - statement of the problem.

- formulation of the hypothesis
- information gathering.
- data interpretation or analysis.
- recommendations and conclusions.

The suggested topics for this method are Human Rights, Population and Environment and Gender Issues and Development.

- *Field trips*:- it exposes the learner to real-life situations outside the classroom. It is a scientific approach which allows pupils to investigate the problem with the teacher as facilitator. During the field trip, pupils are able to observe and record data. The pupils may compare information, discuss, interpret data, analyse and synthesise various aspects under investigation. Conflict and Conflict Resolution, Population and Environment and Gender and Development can be taught using the field trip method.
- *Project method*:- this method offers pupils a wide range of participation. Projects can be done individually or in groups. However, all the tasks assigned should be related to the main theme. Pupils can draw or model or gather information from museums and archives, newspapers, textbooks and libraries.
- *Written methods*:- these are usually found in libraries and archives. They expose the teacher and the learners to a wide reserve of information. Once recorded information cannot be altered. The method can be used to teach all topics in the syllabus.
- *Role playing (theatre or drama)*:- the method is ideal for introducing or summerising a lesson. It involves pupil participation - even those who are slow can be given something to do. The method can be applied to teach Human Rights, Conflict and Conflict Resolution, Gender and Development.

- *Discussion*:- this is a popular teaching method. It encourages pupils to express themselves. It may involve the question and answer technique. It also allows for pupil- teacher interaction. However, an untrained teacher may find it difficult to use. The method is very effective for group work. It can be used to teach all topics in the syllabus.
- *Lecture method*:- the lecture method is one of the most popular strategies. It is teacher-centred; the teacher is active while the learner remains passive. The method can be used effectively to teach big classes. It can be used to teach all topics in the syllabus.
- *Question and Answer*:- like the lecture method, this method is very popular. Most of the time, the teacher applies low level questioning which does not encourage high level thinking skills. Today, only those questions which encourage high learning skills are recommended. The teacher can use it throughout the course.
- *Textbook*:- The textbook method is widely used by teachers. However, pupils should be guided on how the book should be used. Ideally, recent publications are recommended. Out-dated information does not serve any purpose at all. All topics can be effectively taught using the textbook technique.